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FROM GEORGE THE FOURTH
TO GEORGE THE FIFTH

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Queen Victoria in her Coronation Robes

Sir G. Hayter

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FROM GEORGE THE FOURTH TO GEORGE ~~THE~~ FIFTH

ESTELLE ^{W.}ROSS

AUTHOR OF "THE BIRTH OF ENGLAND" "FROM CONQUEST TO
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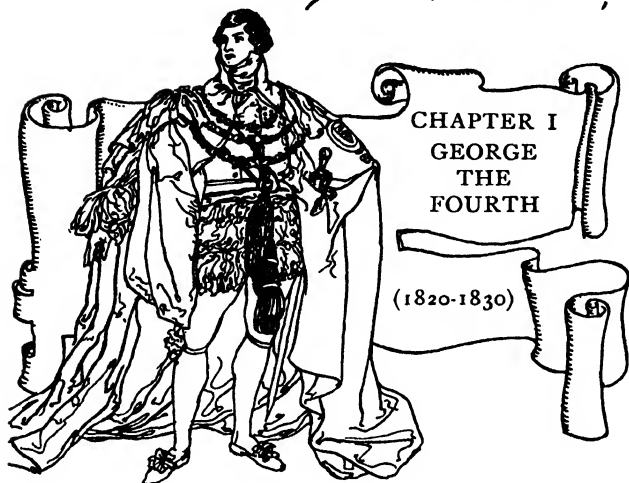
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*David baren Muckay.
1 College Row, Calcutta,*



CHAPTER I
GEORGE
THE
FOURTH

(1820-1830)

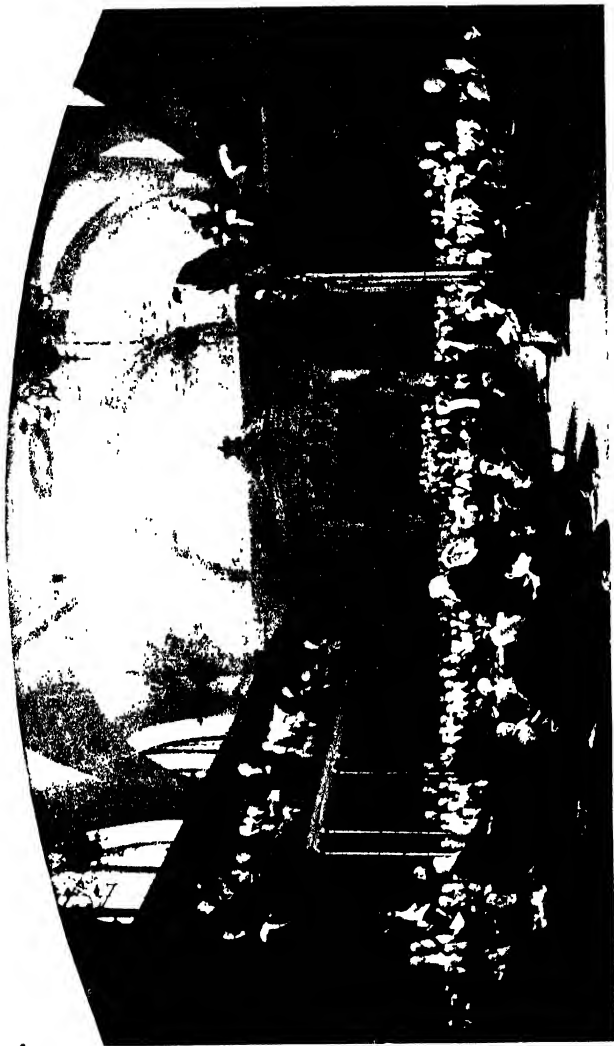
THE King is dead—long live the King! George III was gathered to his fathers and George IV reigned in his stead. He had already had experience of government, for George III's attacks of insanity had incapacitated him, and his son had been Regent since 1811. He was now fifty-eight, and all indications pointed to his continuing the dissipated career which he had pursued since early manhood. His upbringing may have been to blame, for his mother and father had narrow, strict views on the education of their children. The result was particularly unfortunate in this case. When the time for independence came, licence was mistaken for liberty, and the young Prince of Wales sowed a plentiful crop of wild oats.

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

In the *Greville Memoirs* there are delightful touches which show how he scandalized sober-minded, serious people. He "drove in the park every day in a tilbury," a most undignified proceeding, so it was thought. He gave parties, and was entertained by dancers, who sang and danced before him the whole evening and embraced him affectionately afterward.

In 1795 he had consented to marry, as the price for the payment of his debts, Princess Caroline of Brunswick. The marriage was a wretched one, and his first act on coming to the throne was to seek a divorce from this unhappy lady. A Bill for this purpose was brought before Parliament, but public feeling was on the side of the luckless Queen. In Lord Brougham she had a splendid champion in the House of Lords. He defended her and, in a speech of scathing satire, passed judgment on the private life of George IV. The Bill was withdrawn, but the King was successful in having his wife's name removed from the liturgy, and he determined that she should have no part in the Coronation ceremonies, which were arranged to take place in July 1821. Stringent orders were given at the Abbey doors to admit no one without a ticket. Caroline, however, determined to be crowned as Queen Consort. On the appointed day, magnificently attired, attended by a suitable cortège, she drove to Westminster. The crowds in the streets cheered as she passed, and broke into eager questioning among themselves as to what would happen at the Abbey. It was soon known, for murmurs reached from footway to balcony: "She is coming back." Queen Caroline had been refused admittance.

She only lived a few days after this crushing



The Trial of Queen Caroline before the House of Lords

GEORGE THE FOURTH

humiliation and said, with pathetic resignation, that she had no regret in leaving life.

When George IV came to the throne a Tory government, with Lord Castlereagh at its head, was in office. The country was urgently needing reforms of many kinds, and the Government blindly opposed all such measures. A handful of desperate men met in Cato Street, off the Edgware Road, and plotted to assassinate all the King's ministers. They learnt that on a certain night the members of the Government were to dine at Lord Harrowby's, and here they intended to murder their victims. Lord Harrowby was warned, his guests dined elsewhere, and the conspirators, armed with bags in which to carry away the heads of Lord Castlereagh and Lord Sidmouth, were caught in their own trap. They were brought to trial and five of them, including Thistlewood, their leader, were hanged (February 1820).

A sad fate, however, overtook Castlereagh, for he went out of his mind, and committed suicide in 1822. George Canning, a brilliant orator, who had made his mark as a member of Parliament in the early days of the nineteenth century, was made Foreign Secretary in his stead. Canning was a Tory, but he was no blind opponent of reform, and his point of view in foreign politics was statesmanlike. He believed that England should not interfere in the internal government of civilized nations. If they deposed their monarchs and set up republics that was no affair of ours. Should they go to war with one another, whatever our sympathies, we must hold aloof. England could only claim a right to step in if some third nation became a party to the dispute. In consultation with France and Russia, Canning

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

secured the independence of Greece. When the Spanish colonies in South America and Mexico revolted against Spain, and set themselves up as independent states, Canning, in a phrase that has become historic, recognized their position, and said that they "called a new world into existence to redress the balance of the old."

The country was much occupied at this time with the agitation for the removal of Catholic disabilities. Ever since the Reformation, Roman Catholics had been debarred from holding important offices of State. In England this was but a minor grievance; in Ireland it was paramount, for five-sixths of the Irish were Catholics. It meant that they could not send a member of their own communion to represent them in the English Parliament.

The struggle for Catholic Emancipation in Ireland had a great leader in Daniel O'Connell. He had been



Daniel O'Connell

educated at the Catholic school at Douay, in France, and as a boy had seen something of the terrible upheaval of the French Revolution and the reign of terror. O'Connell inspired his Catholic countrymen to work for religious freedom, but not by revolutionary methods. He formed the Catholic Association (1823), and by the sheer weight of his brilliant personality—he was of fine presence and over six feet in height—and his noble oratory he rallied his countrymen. A spirit stirred within them, the spirit of a nation.

He was a typical Irishman, witty, cautious,

GEORGE THE FOURTH

audacious, a barrister by profession and well qualified to organize such a movement. In order to call public attention to the position of Catholics he put up as member for the County of Clare. From the altars throughout the land the priests pleaded with their congregations to support him. He was elected. On the day of the assembly of Parliament he appeared at the bar of the House, and was called upon in due course to take the oath. It was an oath to which no Roman Catholic could subscribe, for in recognizing the King as head of the Church, it implicitly denied the supremacy of the Pope. O'Connell refused, was commanded to retire, and the seat was declared vacant. He returned to Ireland, where his constituents once more elected him to represent them, though nothing had been changed in the interval and he was still unable to take his seat. For the time the power in Ireland remained in the hands of the Protestant minority.

O'Connell's Catholic countrymen would not accept the defeat, and it was soon evident that, whatever were the personal feelings of the members of the Government, it was a choice between Catholic Emancipation and revolution. Canning, who had been made Prime Minister in April 1827, favoured their claims, but on 8th August of the same year his brilliant career ended, and the Duke of Wellington, a strong Tory, succeeded him as Premier.

The Iron Duke was opposed to emancipation, but he saw that the tide of indignation in Ireland was too strong to be stemmed. None knew better than he the horrors of civil war. He approached the King, who expressed himself with great vigour in opposition to any such measure. "Sooner," he said, "will I retire

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

to my kingdom of Hanover and abdicate the throne of England and leave the Duke of Clarence in possession." George was fond of these bursts of rhetoric, but they meant nothing. His ministers had learnt how to manage him. In spite of his dire threat, the Catholic Relief Bill became law (April 1829). A new oath was substituted for the oath of supremacy. Catholics were thus admitted to both houses of Parliament, to offices of State, and to the judicial bench.



George IV

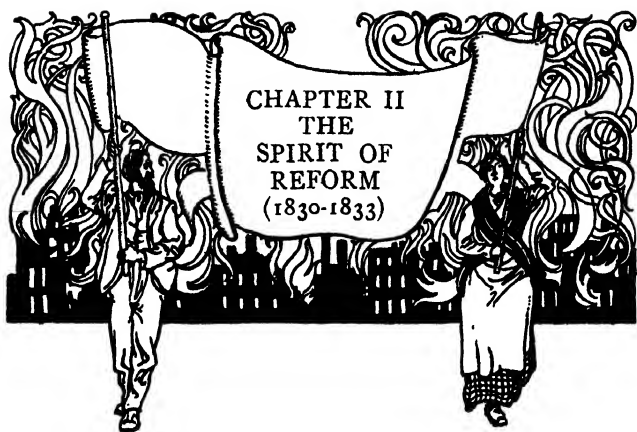
Soon after the passing of the Bill George IV died, and was succeeded by his brother, William IV. During the ten years of his reign many great men, whose reputations had been made before he came to the throne, had preceded him to their rest. Among them

the dominating personality of Napoleon passed into history. He died in exile at St Helena in 1821.

Three of the brightest stars in our literature had ceased to shine. Keats, who had written *Endymion*, the *Ode on a Grecian Urn*, and other imperishable verse; died in Rome at the age of twenty-four (1821). A year later Shelley, the poet of *Prometheus Unbound* and *To a Skylark*, and some of the most exquisite lyrics in our language, was drowned in the Bay of Spezia at the early age of thirty. Three years later the "fierier soul, its own fierce prey" of Lord Byron, who had gone to help the Greeks in their fight for independence, passed away at Missolonghi at the age of thirty-six. He was the idolized poet of his day, but his name does not stand

GEORGE THE FOURTH

now so high as it did. Sir Thomas Lawrence, the President of the Royal Academy, Sir Humphry Davy, the great scientist who invented the miner's safety lamp, Flaxman, the sculptor, had all done their work and gone their way.



GEORGE III destined his son William for the navy, since, being only third in the line of succession, he was unlikely to come to the throne. When the lad was thirteen his father started him on this career. The King wrote to Sir Samuel Hood asking him what clothes and books the boy ought to take on board ship with him, and telling him that "he has begun geometry, and I shall have an attention to forward him in whatever you may hint as proper to be done before he enters that glorious profession." The father took an interest in all practical details of his son's start in life. In another letter to Hood he wrote that he had "sent an hair trunk, two chests and two cots done up in one mat to be delivered unto you for the use of my young sailor. I flatter myself that you will be pleased with the appearance of the boy." No special marks of favour were to be

THE SPIRIT OF REFORM

shown to him on account of his rank. William, subsequently created Duke of Clarence by his father, gradually rose in his profession. He showed no special aptitude for command, but his breezy, cheerful nature made him popular. In time he became Lord High Admiral.

William was now a genial man of sixty-five, without kingly qualities, but with a great belief in himself. He made long and wearisome speeches on every possible occasion, and his ministers had to listen to them with a good grace. Greville, whose *Memoirs* are a rich mine of gossip on the social life of this period, tells us that "he introduced the custom of giving toasts and making speeches at all his dinners and that was more suitable to a tavern than to a palace. He was totally deficient in dignity and refinement." If we had not been more fortunate in our public men than in our monarch England might have known revolution during the years that followed.



William IV

The Tories were in office, with the Duke of Wellington as Prime Minister, and for the moment the new king, though he had Whig sympathies, decided not to change the ministry. Wellington, unsurpassed as a military leader, was a failure as Premier. He was intolerant and hostile to reform, though, as we have seen, he could give way at times of crisis. The Whigs hated him as antagonistic to their principles. The Tories had not forgiven his change of front over the Catholic Emancipation Bill, and the public, all

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

forgetful of the Peninsular War and Waterloo, looked upon him as their enemy. In the caricatures of the time he was represented as a figure of contempt. The



Bust of the
Duke of Wellington

pressure of these forces compelled him to resign office in November 1830, and the King summoned Earl Grey, who became Prime Minister.

The first problem before the country was the reform of parliamentary representation, and Earl Grey undertook that this should be a Cabinet measure. This means that the Government would have resigned office if they had failed to redeem their pledge, and pass the Bill.

A parliamentary measure is termed a Bill when it comes up for discussion in the House of Commons. Upon its "first reading," merely a formal summary is given of what is proposed to be done. At the second reading the Bill is fully explained in all its bearings by the minister who introduces it. The various provisions are argued and discussed by both sides of the House, and finally the members go into different lobbies, the "ayes" in favour of the Bill, the "noes" against it. Should the majority be favourable, the Bill then goes into committee, when it is debated and voted upon clause by clause. The Bill as altered by the committee is once more taken, for its third reading, to the House of Commons, voted on, and, if the majority of members are still in its favour, is sent up to the House of Lords. The Lords had the power to accept or reject a Bill, or send it back to the House of Commons, with suggestions for alteration. When a Bill passes the

THE SPIRIT OF REFORM

House of Lords it receives the royal assent and becomes an Act of Parliament. In 1911, by the passing of the Parliament Bill, the veto of the House of Lords was destroyed. A Bill which has passed through the House of Commons in three successive sessions, and been rejected, may be presented to the King for the royal assent and become an Act of Parliament.

Ever since the time of Cromwell the need of a reform in the electorate was recognized. Practically at this time only the wealthier classes had the right to vote for members of Parliament. The middle classes and the poorer classes were voteless. There were two not very subtle arguments against enlarging the franchise ; one was that Englishmen already possessed all the freedom that was good for them, the other that the Constitution was so perfect that no improvement was necessary.

When the Prime Minister is in the House of Lords, as in the case of Earl Grey, he cannot personally introduce a Bill to the House of Commons. The task of introducing the first Reform Bill, therefore, fell to Lord John Russell, the leader of the Government party in the Commons. In a magnificent speech he told the members how in the early days of Parliament the conception that the House should be representative of the people was clearly set forth. Gradually this root idea had been forgotten. The great landlords were masters of the situation. Their influence was enormous. The Earl of Chichester, for instance, controlled the election to fifteen seats in the House of Commons. Lord John imagined a Frenchman coming over to England for the purpose of studying the British Constitution. He is taken to a grassy mound in the heart of the country

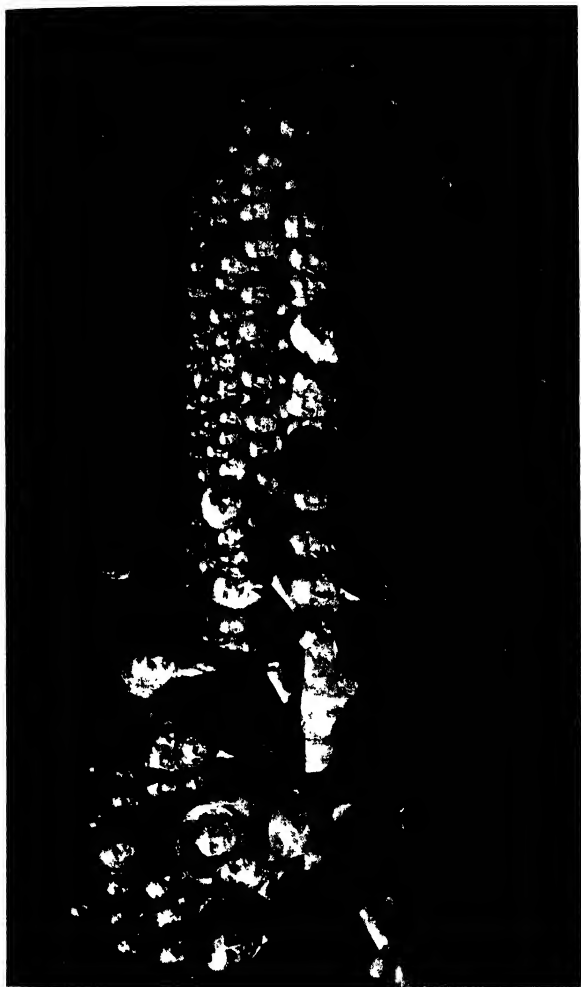
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FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

with no houses within view, and he is told that this spot sends two members to Parliament. He is then shown a stone wall with three niches in it and is told that each of these niches signifies the right to send a member to Parliament. Very much bewildered, he is whisked away from the deserted country to the big teeming commercial towns of Manchester, Liverpool and others, and he realizes something of the immense wealth of England. He is told that these great centres of human activity are without the right to send a representative to the House of Commons. Lord John then outlined the proposed reform. Manchester and Salford, Birmingham, Leeds, Greenwich, Wolverhampton, Sheffield and Sunderland were to be allowed to elect two members; the "rotten boroughs," as the places were called whence the population had dwindled away, were to lose their right to do so. Among other points dealt with, the open bribery which accompanied every electoral contest was to be checked. Only wealthy men could hope to become members of Parliament, for election expenses, which sometimes included the bribing of electors, were very heavy. "It is supposed," wrote Greville of the election of 1818, "that Sir F. Burdett has laid out £10,000 though his friends do not acknowledge that he has spent anything. It is clear that the open houses, cockades and bands of music we have seen these three days were not procured for nothing."

The Bill passed the second reading by a majority of one. This was equivalent to a defeat, and the King was asked to dissolve Parliament. •

The Duke of Wellington was one of the victims of the public disappointment. His London residence, Apsley,



Thos. Clarkson addressing the Anti-Slavery Convention

Benjamin R. Haydon

Photo Emery Walker Ltd

THE SPIRIT OF REFORM

House, was stormed and the windows smashed. He never forgave this insult, and to the day of his death the shuttered windows that looked on the Park bore witness to his anger.

After the general election the Whigs again returned to power. Another Reform Bill was introduced, with no better fate than the first, for it was rejected by the House of Lords. Rioting broke out all over the country. Nottingham Castle was burnt to the ground, houses were fired at Derby, Bristol and other places, and the offenders paid toll with their lives. The dark cloud of revolution hung over the country.

A third Reform Bill was introduced, and once more history repeated itself.

Earl Grey resigned, but when the Duke of Wellington, reading the signs of the times, refused the Premiership, he consented to return to office. He made his own conditions, however; the King was, if necessary, to create a number of Whig peers, sufficient to secure the passing of a Reform Bill through the House of Lords. The threat was sufficient, and, after many vicissitudes, the Reform Bill became law, 1st June 1832. It enfranchised the men of the middle classes but left the working people just where they were. In the course of the session Reform Bills were also passed for Scotland and Ireland.

Other measures now occupied the attention of the country and the greatest of these was one for the abolition of slavery in our colonies. Ever since 1786 Wilberforce, Clarkson, and Zachary Macaulay, a West Indian trader, had been agitating for this reform. Macaulay was able to give first-hand information as to the iniquities practised on the slave population of the West

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

Indies. Men, women and children on the plantations were flogged, branded and mutilated for trivial offences. They had no rights, and were the absolute property of



Wilberforce (From the Monument in Westminster Abbey)

their owners. That men should hold one another in bondage did not seem to all England then, as it seems to all England now, an intolerable wrong. The negro slaves made the fortune of the sugar planters, and trade opposition to emancipation was strong. Prophets of evil were not wanting who foresaw the ruin and murder of the sugar planters, as a result of freeing the slaves.

A Bill for the abolition of slavery became law in August 1833. It provided that the negroes should be subject to periods of apprenticeship before they attained absolute freedom, for it was thus hoped to educate them to use it wisely. A sum of twenty million pounds was voted as compensation to the slave owners. Wilberforce did not live to see the triumph of the cause for which he had fought so long, but he knew that his work was done when the Bill passed the second reading. Write him as "one who loved his fellow-men," who consecrated his life to the uplifting of the friendless slave.

When we had "set our house in order" in the colonies, it was well that we should look at home, where many of our own people were, in deed if not in name, slaves of the labour market. The workers in the factories, men, women and children, worked twelve hours a day and over in the manufacturing districts. The population,

THE SPIRIT OF REFORM

of Lancashire and Yorkshire, thus debarred from the natural rights of rest and leisure, became so thin and stunted that recruiting sergeants could not find young men who came up to the physical standard required by the army. Commercial wealth had grown rapidly and legislation had not as yet stepped in between employers and employed. The masters made what terms they liked with their workpeople. Much



The Houses of Parliament

of the work, tending machines and so on, was of a simple kind, and little children were employed in mills, mines and factories. They found a champion in Parliament in Lord Ashley, gratefully known to a later generation as the Earl of Shaftesbury. This agitation found expression a few years later in Elizabeth Barrett Browning's noble poem, *The Cry of the Children*, which greatly stirred public imagination and stimulated further legislation on the subject.

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

“ And well may the children weep before you !
They are weary ere they run ;
They have never seen the sunshine, nor the glory
Which is brighter than the sun ;
They know the grief of man, without its wisdom ;
They sink in man's despair, without its calm ;
Are slaves, without the liberty in Christdom,
Are martyrs, by the pang without the palm.”

What could be the maturity of these little ones, cheated of childhood, uneducated, untouched by the divine spirit of religion, living out their little lives in the gloom of the mine and the turmoil of the factory ? The Bill which became law in 1833 enacted that children under nine years of age should not be employed and women and young persons under eighteen should not work more than twelve hours a day. The education of the children wage earners was also provided for, though it is difficult to believe that after eight hours' work in a factory they would show any particular intelligence at school.

What was the Church doing all this time ? In its earlier day it was the champion of the poor and oppressed, but it had fallen from its high estate. The clergy for the most part were worldly men in orders, with no sense of the responsibilities of their calling. But the spirit of reform which was abroad touched the Church of England, and many movements had birth at this time. Dr Arnold, the great headmaster of Rugby, hoped by a broadminded interpretation of the Church's doctrines to gather into her fold many dissenters who only held aloof because of minor differences of belief. The policy for which he stood was known as the Broad Church movement. Another party within

THE SPIRIT OF REFORM

the Church believed that, far from loosening the bonds of belief, they should be rigorously tightened. The clergy, they held, were the descendants of the Apostles, and the rubrics of the Prayer Book must be accepted to the letter. They had for leaders men of as pure a faith as John Keble, the poet of *The Christian Year*, John Henry Newman and Dr Pusey. With the object of spreading their views they brought out a book, *Tracts for the Times*, and from this they were known as Tractarians. The movement had a lasting effect on the development of the Church of England, though some of its leaders, among them John Henry Newman, left her fold and joined the Roman Catholic Church.



WHEN Princess Charlotte, the only child of the Prince Regent and Caroline of Brunswick, died, in 1817, the Regent's younger brothers, William, Duke of Clarence, and Edward, Duke of Kent, were brought a step nearer to the throne. They were both unmarried, but they made all haste to arrange suitable alliances. The Duke of Clarence's choice fell on the Princess Adelaide of Saxe-Coburg-Meiningen, the Duke of Kent's on Princess Victoire Marie Louise, regent of Leiningen-Dachsburg-Hardenburgh, a widow with two children. In order that everything should be done in due form the Duke of Kent was not only married abroad with Lutheran rites, but a second ceremony was performed in England on the same day that his brother wedded Princess Adelaide.

THE EDUCATION OF A QUEEN

The Duke of Kent and his bride lived for a time in Kensington Palace, and there, on 24th May 1819, a daughter was born to them. A month later she was



Kensington Palace

christened Alexandrina Victoria, and among her sponsors were the Prince Regent and the Emperor of Russia.

She was not the direct heir to the throne, for the Duchess of Clarence also had a baby girl, but the Duke of Kent knew that a small turn of Fortune's wheel might make of his helpless babe a future queen. He loved to play with the infant princess and watch the dawn of intelligence in her mind. One day, with a heavy cold upon him, he came in with wet clothes and made straight for the nursery. It was a fatal mistake; the chill settled upon him and he died in a few days. Within a year of her birth Princess Victoria was fatherless.

- The Duchess of Kent was a conscientious woman.

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

She knew that a heavy responsibility rested on her in the upbringing of this child who might be queen, and she intended that her daughter should be fully prepared for any destiny. Kensington Palace was their home, and in the beautiful garden the Princess toddled about, her nurse by her side, two gorgeous footmen in attendance. Through the railings the passers-by would often catch glimpses of a little child, very simply clad, among the flowers.

All too soon irresponsible babyhood merged into childhood, and by the time the Princess was four years old, the stern business of education began. She did not take to her lessons; learning was not made attractive to children in the early days of the nineteenth century when kindergarten methods were unknown. The Duchess engaged as tutor the Rev. George Davys, Dean of Chester, but he failed to rouse much interest in his small pupil, who had a rooted objection to learning the alphabet. She was a high-spirited, wilful child, hard to manage, and it was not till the Baroness Lehzen became her governess that she made much progress with her lessons. The Baroness always remained a close friend. "I adored her," said her pupil in after years, "although I was greatly in awe of her."

When Victoria was nine years old her mother was anxious to have a definite opinion as to her attainments, and consulted the Bishops of London and Lincoln. "When the Princess approached her fifth year," she wrote, "I considered it a proper time to begin in a moderate way her education, an education that was to fit her to be either the sovereign of these realms or to fill a junior station in the royal family." With the letter she enclosed favourable reports of the child's

THE EDUCATION OF A QUEEN

progress from her different instructors. She was studying theology, history, literature, writing, arithmetic, French, German and Latin. Every hour of the day, either for work or play, was mapped out. In order to test her progress the bishops submitted her to a *viva-voce* examination, and when she had come safely through this ordeal they assured the Duchess that her child was doing well for her age.

With all the Duchess's thought for her daughter, she forgot the one essential of youth: it should be happy. When Princess Victoria grew up she paid due tribute to her mother's constant care for her welfare, but still she spoke with wistfulness of her sad and dreary childhood. Too little freedom, too few childish pranks, too much system, disheartened the child.

The Duchess was perhaps unnecessarily anxious that the Princess should not resemble her uncles in any respect. Extravagance and unpaid bills were a horror to the prudent German woman, and the little girl, who had but scant pocket money, was never allowed to buy anything she could not pay for at once. It was a useful lesson, and in due time she impressed it on her own children.

Neither of the royal uncles relished their sister-in-law's opinion of them. Their niece was not allowed to be at Court nor come under their influence in any way. Though they were not particularly desirable companions, the Duchess might have shown more tact. The gossips of the day told many a story of the ill-feeling that existed in the royal family.

When the Princess was eleven years old, George IV died and William IV came to the throne. His two children had both died in infancy, and Victoria was now

. FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

heir presumptive to the throne. A year later her mother decided that the time had come for her to know her destiny. One day the Baroness Lehzen slipped into her pupil's history book a genealogical tree of the English royal family. The girl studied it carefully for a few minutes. Then in a flash she knew what it meant—she was heir to one of the greatest thrones in the world. It was a supreme moment in her life, and the thrill of emotion that passed through her found vent in the simple childish vow, "I will be good."

During the next six years her education went on. She was not a scholarly girl, but she was quick and apt, and her clear common-sense told her that she must be fully prepared for her future position. Her instruction was not only from books, she was to know something at first hand of the land she was to govern. Her mother took her on her travels throughout England and Wales, to places of historic interest, to the big centres of industry, to the beautiful country and the sordid towns. William IV was much annoyed at these journeys, for he thought that they were too much in the nature of royal progresses. His health was failing, but he longed to live until his niece's eighteenth birthday, when she would be of age, for royalty does not wait till one-and-twenty. This desire was not due to any great affection for Victoria but because he hated to think of the Duchess of Kent as regent after his death.

On 24th May 1837 Princess Victoria attained her majority; on 20th June, at two in the morning, William IV died at Windsor.

18793.
Directly he had breathed his last the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Lord Chancellor, who were in attendance, rode in hot haste to Kensington. They



‘Long live the Queen!’

H. T. Wells, R.A.

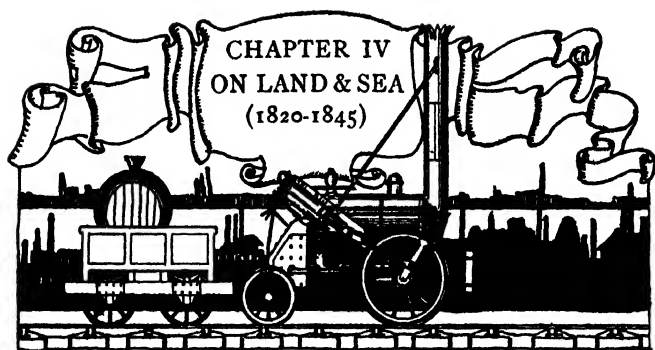
Photo, Mansell & Co

THE EDUCATION OF A QUEEN

rapped long and loudly at the Palace doors ; no answer came, the household was sunk in sleep. At last a servant was roused and asked to summon the Princess's lady-in-waiting, to whom was entrusted a message that brooked no delay, for it was to " The Queen." Victoria was sleeping in her mother's room, where she had slept ever since she was a child. She was roused, and hastily donning her dressing-gown, her fair hair flowing loosely over her shoulders, with simple dignity she entered the presence of her emissaries. The Archbishop knelt before her and acclaimed her Queen.

" I ask your prayers on my behalf," she murmured. Later in the day the First Council of the reign was held in Kensington Palace, where, before the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, the Queen made her first speech. She spoke regretfully of her uncle who had passed away, gratefully of her mother's care, and pledged herself to devote her life to the welfare of her people. She took the oath to preserve the Constitution and uphold the Church of England, and the Privy Councillors each in turn knelt before her.

That day throughout the country " the mighty Princess Alexandrina Victoria the only lawful and rightful liege " was proclaimed Queen.



FOR hundreds of years, indeed in a sense from the beginning of time, people had travelled in much the same way. They had ridden or driven the native beast of burden, whether horse, bullock or camel, or they had journeyed on foot. Changes had come but they had only been in the improvement of the roads, the conveyances and the breed of animal.

In England, at the beginning of the nineteenth century, wealthy people travelled in their own carriages, ordinary people in stage coaches. When George IV was king stage-coach travelling in England was at its height. The rubicund coachman was an expert driver who knew every inch of the road, his horses galloped at a splendid pace. The coaches stopped to pick up and set down passengers at well-appointed inns where hot meals were in readiness for hungry travellers. It was a costly business going from one part of the country to another in those days, and for the most part people moved about very little. A journey was the event of a

ON LAND AND SEA

lifetime with the poorer folk. Less than a hundred years ago it usually took three days to go from London to Durham.

When nothing more could be done to improve horse-drawn vehicles the end was in sight. The stage-coach,



A Stage-coach

the jolly postboys, mine host of the inn, were to pass from real life to romance.

The coming of the railway was not due to one brilliant inventive genius. No entirely new and original machine has ever come to us fully equipped for immediate use. To trace the slow, laborious and disheartening process by which a great invention is perfected is a lesson in patience and courage. Men have spent their lives to make good one little bit of its mechanism ; many such have died unnoticed and unknown. At last has come the genius who knows how to use what has already been done, to improve on it and to make a practical instrument for human use. The two men to whom was given the honour to serve their fellow-creatures by producing the steam-engine are James Watt and George Stephenson. Watt made such improvements in the steam-engine that it could be used for practical labour-saving purposes ; Stephenson perfected the locomotive engine driven by steam.

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

George Stephenson's life is one of those, fortunately not few, in which the struggle against circumstance has been nobly sustained and won. He was born in 1781 in a squalid cottage near the Wylam colliery, where his father worked. The family earnings, and there were six children, were twelve shillings a week, and a single room housed the parents and their little brood. No education was possible for the youngsters who, as soon as they were able to take care of themselves, began to add to the family income. George's first earnings were a shilling a week for herding a widow's cows ; he passed on to hoeing turnips, and while he was still a child was employed as driver of the horses working the colliery gin. By the time he was fourteen he became assistant fireman to his father and earned a shilling a day. He was keenly interested in the simple machinery in use at the colliery and would make rough models of it in his spare time. He soon found that his lack of education was a fatal handicap, and at eighteen he went to a night school, where he paid fourpence a week for instruction in reading, writing and arithmetic. All his spare time he spent in study. His dog would bring his master's dinner to the colliery, and Stephenson, sitting by the side of his engine, his slate on his knee, munched his bread and cheese, while working laboriously at pothooks and hangers. In a year's time he could sign his own name. This industry was for a direct end—he wanted to understand about machines and to read any book he could have access to which would explain them to him. On Saturday afternoons, which his mates spent in merry-making, he took his colliery engine to pieces, cleaned it, and noticed the relation of all its parts. He worked out many problems

ON LAND AND SEA

for himself, sometimes finding afterwards that could he have had access to some technical work on the subject he would have been spared labour and disappointment.

At the colliery was a little engine, the "Puffing Billy," used on the tramway line for the transportation of coal. It was the first engine which ran with smooth wheels on a smooth rail. Stephenson centred his ambition on making an improved locomotive engine. Many others were at work with the same object. The first engines failed again and again when they were put to the test, and very quaint contrivances many of them were. One, called the Mechanical Traveller, was built to go on legs working alternately like those of a horse. On its first trial it blew up and killed many spectators.

Stephenson, having studied other engines and the reasons why they were unsatisfactory, decided at last to make an engine on his own plans, and Lord Ravensworth provided him with the means. It was impossible to find workmen able to handle the necessary tools, and Stephenson had to train his men before he could employ them. The engine, completed at last, was tried on the colliery lines. The steam escaped with such shrieks that the horses and cattle in the adjacent fields were terrified, and a neighbouring squire complained of it as a nuisance. Neither in speed nor in economy did it compete with the horse. Undeterred by failure, Stephenson went to work again, and at last built an engine which he called the "Rocket."

A line had already been laid down between Stockton and Darlington for horse-drawn traffic, on which a coach, "The Experiment," travelled daily to and fro at the rate of six miles an hour. In 1829 lines had been laid between Liverpool and Manchester, and the

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

railway directors were anxious to procure a practical locomotive. They offered a prize of £500 for one, laying down regulations as to the weight of the engine, the amount it should draw, and so on. The Rocket was in readiness in time and the "Novelty," the "Sans Pareil" and the "Perseverance" were also entered for the competition. The contest was fixed for 1st October 1829, and was to take place on a piece of level ground two miles in length, and each engine was to run seventy miles to and fro. Popular excitement was intense. No Derby was awaited with keener speculation as to the winner. The Rocket started first, dragging waggons after it, successfully performed the seventy miles, and reached a speed of twenty-nine miles an hour; the Sans Pareil completed seven trips and broke down; the Novelty failed on the second trip; the Perseverance, unworthy of its name, did not run at all.

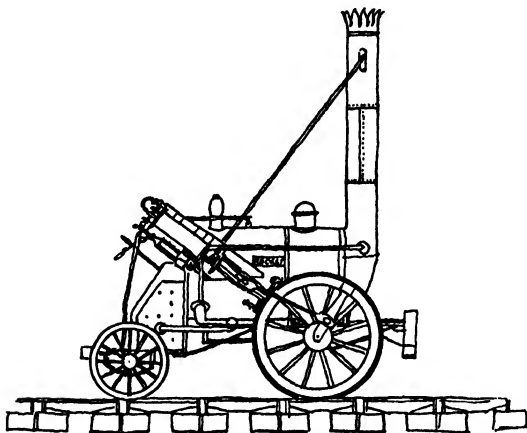
The Rocket, the pioneer of the magnificent engines of to-day, stands in its quaint ugliness by the side of the Puffing Billy in the South Kensington Museum.

In September 1830 the first passenger train was to run on the Manchester and Liverpool railway, and members of Parliament came down by coach to ride in it. The event was a success but for a tragic accident; Mr Huskisson, a leading politician, got out of the train, stepped in front of the engine, and was run over and killed.

The railway movement was now fairly launched, and schemes for the construction of lines all over the kingdom filled the air. Croaking voices, foretelling all sorts of disasters, were not wanting. *The Quarterly* lost itself in indignation over a proposed line at Woolwich, and

ON LAND AND SEA

prophesied that "the powers of the locomotive steam-engine may delude for a time, but must end in the mortification of all concerned." To this day we see the results of the fierce opposition of unpractical minds. Eton College protested hotly, so did Oxford University, and both were successful in compelling the course of the



The Rocket

line to be deflected in order to leave their sacred precincts undisturbed. Many a country village was left isolated through the squire's opposition to the iron road running through his domain. Towns put in direct communication with one another grew and prospered, and villages on the railway routes grew to towns. Middlesbrough in the early days of the century was a farmhouse with a few outbuildings ; it now has close on 100,000 inhabitants.

• Railway travelling was only comfortable for the rich.

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

Greville thus describes his first journey in July 1837 : "Got to Birmingham at half-past five on Monday morning, and got upon the railroad at half-past seven. Nothing can be more comfortable than the vehicle in which I was put, a sort of chariot with two places, and there is nothing disagreeable about it but the occasional whiffs of stinking air which it is impossible to exclude altogether. The first sensation is a slight degree of nervousness and a feeling of being run away with, but a sense of security soon supervenes, and the velocity is delightful."

The railway companies ignored the very existence of poorer travellers till they were compelled by Parliament to run certain trains with accommodation for them at cheap rates. Even then they did everything to discourage them, for third-class passengers had to travel in open trucks exposed to sun, sleet and storm, on trains that stopped at every station, and were frequently shunted to allow the expresses containing their "betters" to pass swiftly to their destinations. Many years passed before it dawned on the minds of the railway directors that the third-class passengers had a right to travel as comfortably, if not as luxuriously, as the first-class passengers.

When the reign of Victoria opened only 200 miles of railway were in use, but money poured in for new ventures and some hundreds of miles were planned. As the years went on the big lines from London to the north, south, east and west were opened and extended. The year 1845 saw the great railway mania, which rivalled the South Sea Bubble in the eagerness with which spectators rushed to invest their money in these enterprises. Parliament had sanctioned the laying

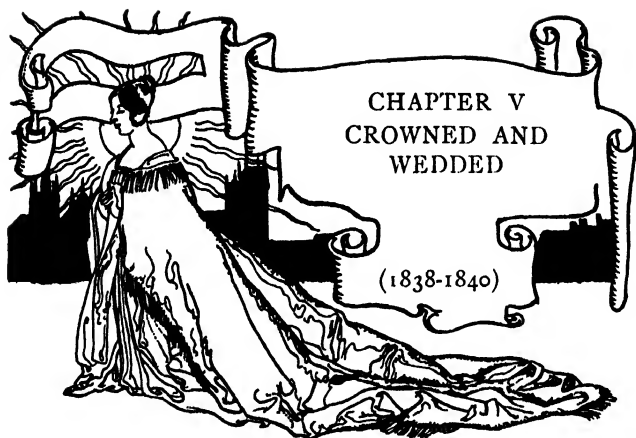
ON LAND AND SEA

down of 2283 miles of railway. Streets round the Stock Exchange were thronged with eager purchasers of railway stock. George Hudson, the railway king, in two days obtained approval of schemes which would cost £10,000,000, but it was soon found that all hopes of immediate fortune were illusory, and hundreds were ruined.

The first engineers did not realize that in course of time the great lines would one day be linked together, and have "running powers," as it is called, on each other's lines. Isambard Kingdom Brunel, the son of the engineer who constructed the Thames Tunnel, and engineer of the Great Western Railway, used a broad gauge of 7 feet (the gauge is the width between the lines) on which to run the train. It was perfectly successful and the trains ran smoothly, but it had to be abandoned in later years to enable the Great Western trains to use the lines of other companies which had adopted a narrow gauge of 4 feet, 8½ inches.

On sea as on land, till the nineteenth century no change in the principle of motion had been invented. But experiments were now made with steamships. The *Great Western*, the first of the great ocean liners to cross the Atlantic, was constructed by Brunel and sailed from Bristol to New York in 1838 in fifteen days, at a speed of about ten miles an hour.

Time and distance were no longer to separate the peoples of the world so that only the adventurous few could travel. Year by year facilities of all kinds increased, journeys became less expensive, and to-day travel has become a habit instead of a luxury.



THE girl-queen was fully at home in her great position. Lord Melbourne, the Prime Minister, acted as her instructor and taught her her duties as constitutional ruler. We catch a glimpse of her in the pages of Greville: "With all her prudence and discretion she has great animal spirits, and enters into the magnificent novelties of her position with the zest and curiosity of a child. No man is more formed to ingratiate himself with her than Melbourne. . . . I have no doubt Melbourne is passionately fond of her as he might be of his daughter if he had one, and the more because he is a man with a capacity for loving without having anything in the world to love." The Queen returned his affection and looked to him for counsel in all her difficulties. He earned the gratitude of his country for the wise way in which he directed the first steps of his young sovereign.

CROWNED AND WEDDED

The Queen's first act on coming to the throne was to settle her father's debts. Her mother remained with her, but the daughter was free from her control, and could not, of course, confide in her the affairs of State.

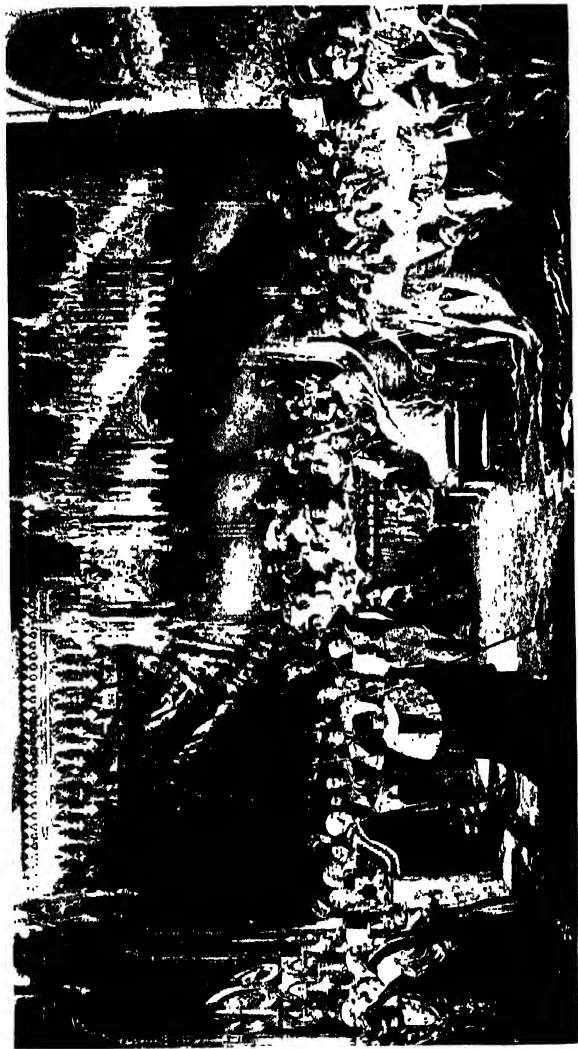
The 28th June 1838 was the day fixed for the coronation. The young Queen woke at dawn to hear the shouts of the populace who were already assembling to watch her triumphant journey to the Abbey. To the booming of guns Victoria enters her gilded coach, drawn by eight cream-coloured horses, and gazes on the multitude of her subjects who are eager to greet her on this great day. She enters the Abbey, its dim recesses brightened by the splendour of uniforms and the glitter of jewels, and all eyes follow the slight figure in her regal robes as, accompanied by the Bishop of Bath and Wells and the Bishop of Durham, she walks with stately dignity up the aisle, her train borne by eight daughters of noble houses of England robed in white with the emblem of England in their hair. She reaches the faldstool, and there kneels and prays for a few moments. When she rises the walls of the Abbey resound with the shout of the Westminster boys, who by a time-honoured right are first to greet their sovereign, *Victoria, Victoria, vivat Victoria Regina*. Again there is silence as the Archbishop of Canterbury turns her to the east, south, west and north, and in clear tones proclaims Victoria the undisputed queen of these islands. The ceremony continues in all its mystic significance. The Queen presents the altar-cloth and a nugget of gold and takes the coronation oath. She then retires to a side chapel to don her crimson mantle and circlet of gold, and, bare-headed, makes her

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

way to St Edward's chair, where she is anointed with holy oil and invested with the symbols of royalty : the spurs of chivalry, the orb of dominion, the sword of state, the sceptre of justice, the rod of mercy. The last act of the great drama is played when the Archbishop of Canterbury, taking the crown from the altar, places it on her head. To the strains of the *Te Deum* she passes to the throne, and there receives the homage of the peers of the realm.

She has drunk of the cup of splendour, she has realized, dimly, perhaps, for the full significance would have been overwhelming, the greatness of the position to which she is called, and in her simple way she records the impression in her diary : " I shall ever remember this day as the proudest in my life."

Soon after the Queen's accession difficulties occurred with the planters and negroes of Jamaica. The negroes, coming from many generations of oppressed people, did not understand freedom. Some were unduly arrogant in their dealings with their former owners, others as subservient as though they still had no personal rights. The masters had tried to retain their former power, and cruelties were practised on the apprentices. All the slaves had to undergo a period of apprenticeship before they were fully emancipated, to remedy which Brougham introduced a Bill into the House of Commons to abolish the system of apprenticeship altogether (1839). This was passed, but it led to a strained feeling between the Jamaica House of Assembly and the Home Government, and meantime the ill feeling between the planters and the native population became critical. In order to set matters right it was proposed to suspend the Jamaica



The Coronation of Queen Victoria

By G. Hayter

Photo, Mansell & Co

CROWNED AND WEDDED

Constitution for five years, and a Bill for this purpose was introduced into Parliament. It passed by a majority of five only, which being a virtual defeat for the Whigs, Melbourne resigned. It was a great sorrow to the Queen to have to part with her wise counsellor; on the Duke of Wellington's advice she sent for Sir Robert Peel, the leader of the Tories, to form a ministry. He insisted that the Whig ladies in close attendance on the Queen should retire and Tory ladies take their place. The situation was a trying one, but the Queen was firm in her refusal. She seems to have feared that the whole of her household would be changed with every change of government, though as a matter of fact only the ladies of the bed-chamber were involved. She declared that "she could not consent to a course which she conceives to be contrary to usage and repugnant to her feelings."

There was something to be said on both sides—for Lord Melbourne's contention that political changes would "make her domestic life one constant scene of unhappiness and discomfort" and for Sir Robert Peel, who considered Lady Normanby, one of the chief ladies of the royal household, as "his most formidable enemy."

The Queen's refusal recalled Melbourne and the Whigs once more to office. The dispute was settled some time afterward by the Queen consenting to consult the Prime Minister as to the ladies of her household, and, on a change of government, to allow those who were closely related to the Opposition to retire.

No doubt the Queen in her great position required those whom she liked about her. But the solution of her personal problem was to come not by opposition

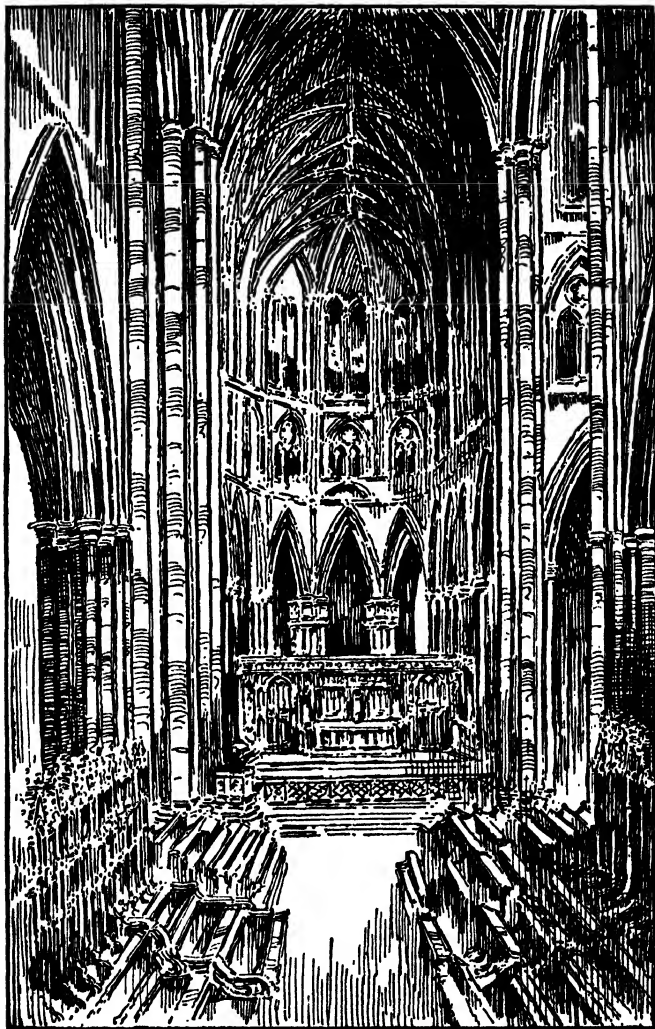
FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

to changes in her household but by finding a suitable mate. The country was anxious that the Queen should marry. Only certain Protestant princes were eligible for her hand, but within these limits she could make her choice. This fell upon her cousin, Prince Albert, the second son of the Duke of Saxe-Coburg. She had seen him and liked him, and the relations on both sides desired the match. She was not anxious as yet to tie herself down in marriage. She wrote to her Uncle Leopold, King of the Belgians, who was an invaluable adviser to her in the early years of her reign, and for whom she felt the affection of a daughter, that she might like Prince Albert "as a friend, a cousin, a brother and no more."

Some time after Prince Albert came to visit the Queen at Windsor, and her letter to King Leopold shows that her mind was beginning to waver. "Albert's beauty is most striking, and he is most amiable and unaffected—in short, very fascinating."

The position of the Queen made it necessary that the proposal of marriage should come from her, and the Prince accepted. It was a love match. She wrote at once to her confidant, Baron Stockmar: "Albert has completely won my heart, and all was settled between us this morning. I feel certain that he will make me very happy. I wish I could say I felt as certain of making him happy, but I shall do my best." The Prince, in his letter to his grandmother, told her how the Queen, "in a genuine outburst of affection," had told him that he had gained her whole heart and would make her intensely happy if he would make the sacrifice of sharing his life with her.

The Prince had won the richest prize in winning her,



Interior of Westminster Abbey

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

and from the first, young as he was (he was three months her junior), took his position as future husband of the Queen of England very seriously. He was determined, he told Baron Stockmar, to cultivate "a character which will win the respect, love and confidence of the Queen and of the nation."

In opening Parliament on 16th January 1840 the Queen announced her intention to marry her cousin, and said that she trusted the union would be "conducive to the interests of my people as well as to my own domestic happiness."

Prince Albert was aware that his was no easy task, and the nation, though they hailed the engagement with joy, were not tactful in dealing with him. The Queen in the joyousness of her love was anxious that all honour should be paid to the Prince of her choice. She desired him to have the title of King Consort, but Parliament utterly refused. Even the title of Prince Consort was not conferred on him till some years after his marriage.

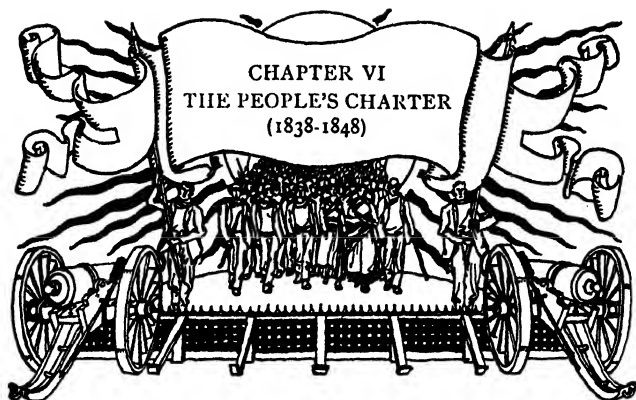
The question of his allowance too was the subject of heated debate. It was a time of heavy distress and Parliament was anxious not to involve the country in any unnecessary expenditure. Prince Leopold had had £50,000 a year when he married Princess Charlotte, but Parliament could not see its way to making such a grant, and at last it was settled at £30,000.

There were also wrangles as to the question of precedence, though it would seem only fair, as was ultimately settled, that the Prince should take rank immediately after the Queen. He was naturalized as an Englishman before his marriage.

Westminster Abbey, 10th February 1840, was the

CROWNED AND WEDDED

scene of another glorious pageant. The Queen came to her wedding robed in white satin, woven in Spital-fields, and covered with delicate Honiton lace. She wore nothing that had not been made by her own subjects. The Prince wore the uniform of a British Field-Marshal. After the ceremony and the banquet that followed the bride and bridegroom drove in an open coach to Windsor, where for three days they enjoyed their honeymoon untroubled by the cares of State.



THE Reform Bill of 1832 had proved a great boon to the middle classes, to professional men, manufacturers and traders.

With the introduction of railways, the improvements in machinery and the growth of manufactures important changes were taking place in the lives of the working classes, numbers of whom left the country and flocked to the towns, there, as often as not, to suffer from even more acute poverty than they had left behind. Thousands of families were on the verge of starvation. Rent, food, clothes for five or six people had often to be found out of half-a-sovereign a week, and bread was very dear. The homes were rickety, insanitary tenements, the workshops were even worse. Kingsley, in *Alton Locke*, gives a description of a west-end tailor's of that day: "A low lean-to room, stifling me with the combined odours of human breath and perspiration, stale beer, the sweet sickly smell of gin, and the sour and hardly less disgusting one

THE PEOPLE'S CHARTER

of new cloth. On the floor, thick with dust and dirt, scraps of stuff and ends of thread, sat some dozen haggard, untidy, shoeless men, with a mingled look of care and recklessness that made me shudder. The windows were tight closed to keep out the cold winter



Tailors' Sweating Den

air ; and the condensed breath ran in streams down the panes, chequering the dreary outlook of chimney pots and smoke."

In this as in all nations, the bulk of the people are poor labouring folk. So poor were they in 1838 that one in every fifteen received parish relief. In England they were still disenfranchised and had no direct voice in making the laws they were called upon to obey. They began to agitate, and six members of Parliament

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

who sympathized with their claims, and six working men drew up a petition embodying their demands ; " There is your Charter, stick to that," said Daniel O'Connell, who thus gave the name to the Chartist agitation.

The six points of the charter were: universal suffrage, annual parliaments, equal electoral districts, the removal of the property qualification for members of Parliament, payment of members and the ballot. They do not seem extravagant demands, but in 1838 they were considered revolutionary.

In the early part of the century elections were very corrupt and very animated. Rival candidates standing on platforms known as the hustings would address impassioned speeches to the noisy crowd below. An elector voted openly and everyone knew for which candidate he voted. Voting by ballot is secret, and was at the outset considered contrary to the free and independent spirit of an Englishman. It did not occur to this same free and independent Englishman that open voting would be rather dangerous for a workman if party feeling ran high. He might vote against the candidate favoured by his employer and then find himself, on some trivial excuse, dismissed from work.

The Chartists had for their leader an Irishman, Feargus O'Connor, who boasted descent from a line of kings, no special qualification for representing working men. He was a fine-looking man, an eloquent speaker, and he stirred the working classes by the fiery articles which he wrote in his paper, *The Northern Star*. The Chartist movement spread rapidly among the townsfolk, though the peasantry were untouched. The cards of membership bore the words : " The man who evades

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his share of useful labour diminishes the stock of wealth, and throws his own burden on his neighbour." Many in the movement were willing to do that, provided they could discover the neighbour, but for the most part they were men sincere in the desire for social reform.

The Parliament of 1838 was wholly unfavourable to the Chartist demands. Lord John Russell said: "The opinion of the majority of the people is, I do believe, against progressive reforms in the representation, of which the effect would be only to introduce endless uncertainty."

In spite of this check the Chartist movement grew. Many sympathized with it, among them Harriet Martineau, Wordsworth and Disraeli. The Chartists differed among themselves as to the best means of securing reform. They were divided into two groups. The constitutional party wanted to enforce the Charter by the usual machinery of Acts of Parliament; they agitated in a perfectly lawful way, holding meetings and issuing pamphlets. The Physical Force Chartists thought that moral persuasion was too slow and uncertain, and believed in attracting public attention to their grievances by militant methods.

Whatever the methods employed, the movement fanned into flame the growing discontent of the workers. Meetings were held all over the country. Many Chartists were unable to muster in the daytime, and torchlight assemblies were held. No hall could hold the multitude even if one could have been hired, and the Chartists met in the open country. We can imagine the impressive sight of crowds gathering in the dusk of evening on the moors, groping their way toward the flare of torches which made the surrounding darkness

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

more intense; the pinched, hungry faces of men and women illumined by the fitful torchlight, their eyes turned to the earnest swaying figure, standing on a waggon, their ears strained to catch his rousing words. Fiercely he denounces the Government, ardently he pleads with them to strike a blow for freedom :

“When wilt Thou save the People !

O, God of mercy, when ?

The People, Lord, the People ?

Not thrones and crowns, but men !”

The meeting is over. The women draw their shawls tighter round their ill-nourished bodies, for the chill air pierces them through; the men button ragged coats over narrow chests. Snatches of song are heard, the whistling of the “Marseillaise.” They trudge home with weary bodies but hearts aflame. What would they not dare to secure a better future for themselves and their children ?

As many as 100,000 people sometimes attended these gatherings; the Government was seriously alarmed and declared them illegal.

The hopes of the Chartists now centred on their petition, with its 1,300,000 signatures. It was “a cylinder of parchment about the diameter of a coach wheel,” and was borne by twelve men to the House of Commons and rolled up the floor to the Speaker (June 1839). It was presented by Mr Attwood, who begged the House to resolve itself into a committee for the purpose of considering it, but his motion was rejected. The Chartists were deeply disappointed. “It is useless to expect anything more from the House of Commons,” said one of their leaders. “Belgium and America did not get their liberty until they took it.”

THE PEOPLE'S CHARTER

The Physical Force Chartists now led the way. Rioting broke out all over the country. At Birmingham a violent mob, armed with iron rails, was only dispersed by the military. Houses were fired, windows smashed, outrages, which included murder, planned. The Government retaliated. Many of the agitators were prosecuted. Henry Vincent, the most eloquent of the orators, was imprisoned at Newport, and it was reported that he was treated with intentional harshness. A movement, headed by Frost, a linen-draper, was set on foot to release him. Three divisions of Chartists were to attack the town. The outbreak was carefully arranged, but two of the divisions failed to arrive at the meeting-place in time, and only the third, led by Frost, marched on the town. The magistrates had been fully warned, and soldiers were secreted in the Westgate Hotel, with orders to shoot if necessary. The rioters attempted to storm the building, but were beaten back and retreated with a loss of ten killed and fifty wounded. Frost, Jones and Williams, the ringleaders, were arrested, charged with high treason and condemned to death, the sentence being afterward commuted to transportation for life. Other prominent Chartists were arrested and spent a couple of years in gaol.

These stern measures did not crush the movement ; as the prisoners were released they rallied the working classes once more. A universal strike was attempted. The factory operatives at Ashton-under-Lyne ceased work and marched to Manchester, where, from factory after factory, the hands turned out to join them. They met with no further success, however ; the workers of the Midlands and the south of England did not co-

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

operate ; the strike failed, and in less than three weeks the strikers returned to work.

For a time the movement quieted down, but in 1848 it again throbbed with life. The Chartists heard with enthusiasm of the revolution in France on 24th February, by which Louis Phillipe, the King of the French, was forced to leave the country and a republic was set up. What France had done, England might do. The Chartists determined to make one bold stroke for the recognition of the Charter. They decided to hold a giant meeting on Kennington Common, and to march thence with a petition which bore, so they said, 5,000,000 signatures, to the House of Commons.

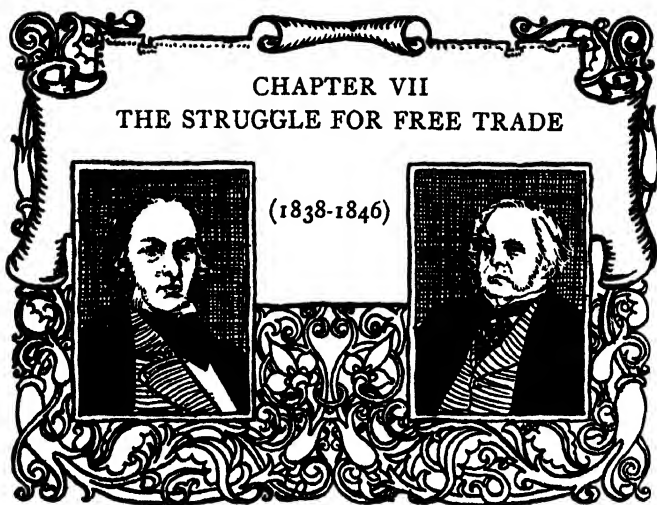
The Government was thoroughly alarmed ; the revolution abroad, which had renewed Chartist energy, had made them alert. An order was at once issued declaring the procession illegal. One hundred and seventy thousand special constables were sworn in for the protection of the metropolis. The General Post Office, the Tower, the Bank of England and the Admiralty were garrisoned against attack. The military arrangements were in the hands of the Duke of Wellington, and with the eye of an experienced general he turned his attention to the bridges, for Kennington Common is on the south side of the river, and the House of Commons on the north.

O'Connor, who had escaped imprisonment through a technical flaw in his indictment, was warned that he would be held responsible if any procession took place. The crowds tramped to Kennington, where he, anxious to save himself, damped their ardour. Groups of men marched to the bridges to find guns and troops in command ; a few went home with broken heads and that was all.

THE PEOPLE'S CHARTER

The day was a failure. The petition was found to be a fraud, for pages of signatures were written in one hand.

The Chartist movement died of ridicule but the pioneer work was done. Three of the six points of the charter are now law: the removal of property qualification for members, payment of members and vote by ballot. Universal suffrage is in the air.



THE Chartist agitation, as we have seen, did not effect any immediate improvement in the condition of the working classes. Shelter, clothes and food were still dear; wages were still low.

But all this time another movement had been gathering force in the country which was to have direct practical results. It was the movement to secure the cheap loaf, to put "give us this day our daily bread" into an Act of Parliament.

Great Britain, when the harvests were scanty, did not grow enough corn to feed her population, and large supplies had to be purchased abroad. In the earlier

The portraits in the headings are : left, Richard Cobden ; right, John Bright.

THE STRUGGLE FOR FREE TRADE

years of the century foreign corn was not permitted to enter the country until home-grown grain had reached famine prices. The farmer was thus protected; he was sheltered from foreign competition and encouraged to produce as much corn as possible. It was thought in those days—it was the time of the Napoleonic wars—that this country must be self-supporting, for were she the scene of war, supplies could not be landed and our population would starve.

The duty on foreign corn was so high that the countries that produced large crops for exportation retaliated. If we shut out their grain, they shut out our cotton goods and other commodities that we produced in excess of our home consumption. We punished ourselves in the long run, for our people had to be fed, and in years of bad harvests the distress was appalling.

It was thought that England was an agricultural country and that her interest lay in cultivating the land, but with the introduction of railways, and the greater facilities for transit, it came to be seen that our future prosperity lay in commerce rather than agriculture: that we are, as Napoleon called us, "a nation of shopkeepers." The great manufacturing towns were rising in importance: Manchester and Bolton were the centres of the cotton industry; Liverpool of shipping; Middlesbrough of iron; Newcastle of coal. Men and women were no longer employed to the same extent on the fields but in mine and factory. Bread was then, and is still, in England at least, the staple food of the poor. Of the eight shillings a week a thrifty working woman of to-day lays out on food for herself and her family, half-a-crown goes for bread.

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Lancashire manufacturers were affected in their pockets by the Corn Laws, for they produced more cotton than was required in this country, and they found that foreign markets were closed to them or that the duty was almost prohibitive. In 1838 their trade was in a bad way, for out of fifty mills in Bolton, thirty were closed. As a result of this distress the Manchester Chamber of Commerce petitioned Parliament against the Corn Laws, and an Anti-Corn Law League was formed. From the first it was foreseen that if corn came in free other produce would have to be included, and that Free Trade was the goal in view.

The new League was immediately joined by Richard Cobden, a cotton spinner, destined to be the leader in this fight. He was a farmer's son, born in Sussex in 1804, and educated at Midhurst Grammar School. While still a lad he was apprenticed to his uncle, a Manchester manufacturer, and thoroughly learnt the business. On his travels for the firm he took a great interest in the operatives, was able to gain their confidence, and chatted to them freely. He travelled throughout Europe, the East, Canada and the United States, and on his travels his mind grappled with many problems, the consideration of which was to bear fruit in this struggle. He saw that the ideal of a self-supporting country was impossible, and that what grew profusely in one country did not necessarily do so in another. He dreamt of universal Free Trade : each country to produce of its best and sell to its neighbours without the restriction of tariffs, and foresaw that under this system of natural exchange there would be greater prosperity and comfort all round.

On his return to England he devoted his energies to

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spreading this gospel. As an Apostle of old, he journeyed through the length and breadth of the country, with a message to the hungry—untaxed food.

With him was associated John Bright, a Quaker, also a cotton spinner by trade, who, like Cobden, had travelled widely, both in Europe and the East. He had taken a great interest in the League, but he did not throw all his energies into the movement till 1841. In a touching passage he tells us how it came about. "I was at Leamington, and on the day when Mr Cobden called on me, I was in the depth of grief, I might almost say despair—for the light and sunshine of my home had been extinguished. All that was left on earth of my young wife, except the memory of a sainted life and of a too brief happiness, was lying still and cold in the chamber above us. Mr Cobden called upon me as my friend, and addressed me, as you might suppose, with words of condolence. After a time he looked up and said, 'There are thousands of homes in England at this moment where wives, mothers and children are dying of hunger. Now, when the first paroxysm of your grief is past, I would advise you to come with me and we will never rest until the Corn Law is repealed.' I felt in my conscience that here was a work which somebody must do, and therefore I accepted his invitation, and from that time we never ceased to labour hard on behalf of the resolution we had made."

Both Cobden and Bright entered Parliament, which was to be the scene of the final struggle, but their first business was to convert the electors.

Bright was admirably qualified to champion any cause, for he had a fine presence and his oratory was superb. His voice, whether softened by pathos or

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

roused by scorn, was of a rich quality, and went straight to the hearts of his hearers. He had noble ideals. "I believe," he said, in one of his speeches, "there is no permanent greatness in a nation except it be based upon morality. . . . Crowns, coronets, mitres, military display, the pomp of war, wide colonies and a huge empire, are all trifles light as air, and not worth considering unless with them you can have a fair share of comfort, contentment, and happiness among the great body of the people. Palaces, baronial castles, great halls, stately mansions, do not make a nation. The nation in every country dwells in the cottage."

It was well that Cobden and Bright were men of such brilliant gifts and such untiring energy, for they had an uphill fight before them. The aristocracy and the landed interest of the country were fiercely antagonistic to the principles they advocated. Cobden and Bright were, as we have said, cotton spinners, and their trade would reap direct personal advantage from Free Trade. But other interests would suffer. Goods which could be produced more cheaply abroad would be "dumped" into our markets and the home industry would decline. The farmers too would be hard hit. Lord Melbourne voiced the feelings of his class when he declared in Parliament, in May 1839, that "to leave the whole agricultural interest without protection, I think it the wildest and maddest scheme that has ever entered into the imagination of man to conceive."

The battle for the repeal of the Corn Laws had to be fought and won in Parliament and the outlook was not hopeful. As early as 1838 Villiers introduced a motion for the repeal of the Corn Laws; and though defeated, returned to the charge with untiring zeal. In June

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1841 Lord Melbourne resigned and Sir Robert Peel, the Conservative leader and a staunch Protectionist, was called upon to form a ministry.

Although in principle a Protectionist, Peel found it desirable to modify his attitude in regard to the Corn Laws. In the Queen's speech it was announced that these laws were to be under consideration, and on 9th February Peel outlined the proposed reforms. He was in favour of a sliding scale—that is to say, the amount of duty on foreign corn would decrease as the price of home-grown grain increased, and this principle was to affect not grain only but other articles of consumption. His position at this time was half-way between Protection and Free Trade. "While, therefore, I am opposed to a system of protection on the ground merely of defending the interests of a particular class, I, on the other hand, would certainly not be a party to any measure the effect of which would be to make this country permanently dependent upon foreign countries for any very considerable proportion of its supply of corn." The Bill passed through the Commons and through the Lords and became law in the following year.

The reduction of the duty on corn necessarily reduced the yearly revenue, and Peel had to make this good. In order to do so he proposed an income tax whereby persons in receipt of over £150 a year were to pay 7d. in the pound. This was not a new tax but it had previously been resorted to only in times of war. At first it was imposed for a certain number of years, but, in spite of its unpopularity, it has never been remitted, and has steadily increased and become part of the regular revenue of the country.

The sliding scale did not satisfy the Anti-Corn Law

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League, and the members were more active than ever in working for total repeal. Peel was beginning to realize that a fuller measure of relief was required. The steady growth of our population made the problem of our food supply one of urgent importance. Willingly or unwillingly, we must look to foreign countries in our need. Cobden believed that if we led the way universal Free Trade would be introduced, and the country was coming round to his opinion. At a monster meeting held at the Free Trade Hall in Manchester (1845), £60,000 was subscribed for the cause in an hour and a half.

Peel was a practical business man and a careful student of political economy, and he had now become convinced that the only way to solve the problem was to remove the duty on corn. The sliding scale had already shown that less prohibitive duties led to increased trade. "We want," he wrote to a friend, "to make this country a cheap country for living, and thus induce parties to remain and settle here. Enable them to consume more by having more to spend."

A terrible object lesson taught many people the danger of dependence on our own crops alone. Potatoes are the staple food of the Irish peasantry, and in 1845 the crop failed and the people died wholesale of starvation. The Government ordered large supplies of Indian corn to be sent from America to Ireland and suspended the duty. This calamity convinced Lord John Russell, the leader of the Whigs, and he spoke of the Corn Laws as "the cause of penury, fever, mortality and crime."

In December 1845 Peel called his colleagues together and told them that he was in favour of the gradual but complete removal of the duties on corn. The

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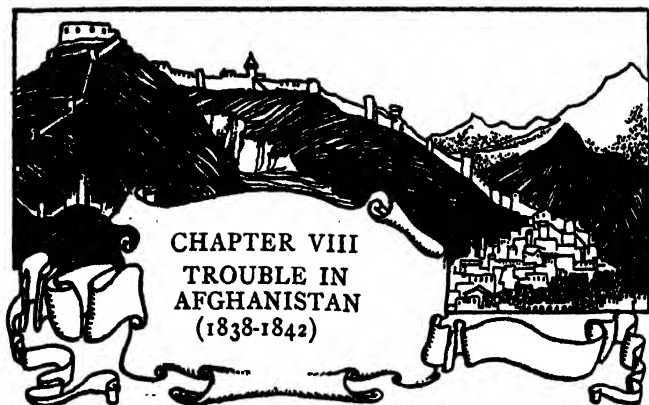
Cabinet as a whole could not agree with him, and he tendered his resignation. The Queen called upon Lord John Russell to form a ministry, but he could not induce the men he wanted to serve under him, and in consequence, she refused to accept Sir Robert Peel's resignation. He immediately introduced the Bill for the Repeal of the Corn Laws. In a magnificent speech he called on his country, with its many advantages, to go forward. Was Great Britain to be afraid of competition, was she to require the "sickly artificial atmosphere of prohibition? Is this the country to stand shivering on the brink of exposure to the healthful breezes of competition?"

Peel's sensitive nature was to suffer acutely in the last struggle. His own party considered him a deserter, Disraeli called him "a burglar of other people's ideas," the Protectionists hated him, the Monopolists detested him. After some delay the Corn Law Bill passed through both houses of Parliament, and took its place on the Statute Book (28th May 1846).

Peel's followers had their revenge. He introduced a Bill for the protection of life in Ireland; it was defeated and he resigned. In his farewell speech he paid a generous tribute to Cobden, on whose brow lay the laurel wreath of victory. In touching words he took leave of the House of Commons; he knew that many hated him, but he said he hoped that he would "be remembered with expressions of good will in the abodes of those whose lot it is to labour and to earn their daily bread by the sweat of their brow, when they shall recruit their exhausted strength with abundant and untaxed food, the sweeter because it is no longer leavened by a sense of injustice."

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Peel had no wish to return to office or lead his party again. Four years later (1850) he made what proved to be his last speech in the House of Commons, a criticism of Lord Palmerston's habit of interfering with foreign nations. The next day, when riding up Constitution Hill, he was thrown from his horse, and his injuries proved fatal. By his own wish he was laid to rest in Drayton Church. The finest tribute to him was paid by the Duke of Wellington when he said: "I never knew a man in whose truth and justice I had a more lively confidence, or in whom I saw a more invariable desire to promote the public service."



WHILE we were occupied with labour unrest and the struggle for Free Trade at home we were in difficulties abroad. Russian ambitions were our nightmare through the greater part of the nineteenth century. It was popularly supposed that Russia had designs on our Indian Empire, and we dreaded lest, through alliances with Persia and Afghanistan, she should find herself in a position to attack us on the North-West Frontier. Afghanistan is the highway between eastern and western Asia. It is a wild, mountainous country, with fertile valleys, accessible from India only through lofty mountain passes, which sometimes reach 12,000 feet in height. It has three main divisions, of which the principal towns are Kabul, Kandahar and Herat.

In 1838 Dost Mahommed was ruler of Kabul and the most powerful man in the country. He had received a Russian mission at Kabul, and it was not without

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reason, therefore, that England feared his alliance with Russia. At the same time, Russian encouragement was given to Persian designs on Afghanistan, which went so far that the Shah laid siege to Herat, where an Englishman, Lieutenant Pottinger, directed the defences of the town. Dost was anxious to secure alliances against Persia, and approached the Governor-General of India, Lord Auckland. Captain (afterwards Sir) Alexander Burnes was sent out on a commercial mission to Kabul, and he wrote, in a letter to a friend : "I came to look after commerce, to superintend surveys, and examine passes of mountains, and likewise certainly to see into affairs, and judge of what was to be done hereafter."

Burnes, who complained that he was not treated with sufficient deference by the Afghans, was soon invested with political power. He conferred with Dost Mahommed, who was at that time anxious to secure the alliance with England, and communicated with Lord Auckland, who was totally opposed to any such alliance. After ten months' unsuccessful siege the Shah broke up his camp, a heavy loser in men and money, and returned to Persia.

The Indian Government did not trust Dost; they suspected him of intriguing with Russia against our Indian Empire. Lord Auckland therefore decided to depose him and place Shah Shuja, a member of a rival dynasty, on the throne. Shah Shuja was to be supported in his usurpation by British and Indian troops, but they were to be withdrawn directly he had been safely established. To Sir John Keane was entrusted the task of enforcing our choice on the Afghan people (1839). With a force of 21,000 men, in three divisions,

TROUBLE IN AFGHANISTAN

he made the terrible journey through mountain passes in wintry March weather, vigorously attacked the while by native tribes. He, however, accomplished his object, and Shah Shuja was duly escorted to Kandahar, where he was crowned amid much apparent rejoicing. Keane was prepared to crush all opposition to the new Shah, and he stormed the strong fortress of Ghazni, held by Dost's son, Akbar Khan, who was taken prisoner, but subsequently escaped. The father, hearing of the disaster, fled to Bokhara, and Shah Shuja was now able to enter Kabul. Having accomplished his mission, Sir John Keane returned to India with the bulk of his troops, leaving a small garrison at Kabul, where Sir W. Macnaghten was appointed British Envoy. Sir Alexander Burnes, who remained as his assistant, was quite satisfied with the situation and thought that the Afghans were likewise content. He lived happily in Kabul, cultivating his garden and believing himself to be on good terms with the natives.

General Knott was left in charge of a small garrison at Kandahar, and General Sale of one at Jelalabad at the entrance of the Khyber Pass.

Shah Shuja was to find England's blessing a curse in disguise. The Afghans meant nothing by their plaudits on his accession ; they considered that he had sold himself to the infidel, for as such good Mohammedans consider Christians. The only excuse for interference had been fear of Russia, and our action in placing Shah Shuja on the throne was likely to increase Russian influence, for the discontented Afghans openly expressed their intention of seeking alliance with our rival.

Dost did not intend to take immediate action to regain his throne. He entered Kabul, November 1840,

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and surrendered to the English. He was treated with all due deference and exiled to India, where he lived in great comfort, and received hospitality from the British officials.

Gloomy reports were meanwhile circulating with regard to the position of the English in Afghanistan, and Burnes began to be uneasy as to the future. In 1841 General Elphinstone was sent out to take command of the garrisons. It was a most unfortunate choice, for the difficulties he had to encounter would have taxed a man in his prime of vigour and intellect, and he was old and infirm in body and mind. In the meantime Lord Auckland was recalled and Lord Ellenborough took his place as Governor-General. To those who had ears to hear and eyes to see the attitude of the natives was now menacing, and the position of the English in Kabul alarming. The Afghans were evidently plotting revolt, and Generals Knott and Sale were continually occupied in putting down small risings. Burnes was warned to escape while there was time, but he was as optimistic as ever. He went on writing cheery letters home, confident of the friendship of the Afghans. Macnaghten was of a more anxious temperament, and alive to the fact that the situation was becoming critical. Shah Shuja was powerless to help his English allies and was suspected of plotting against them.

The storm burst on 2nd November 1841. Burnes and his brother were at breakfast when ominous sounds greeted their ears. A fierce, angry crowd was approaching and soon surrounded the house. Burnes went on to his balcony to address the mob, but in a moment was hacked to pieces and his brother and one or two others shared his fate.

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The Afghans had shown their teeth and more was to follow. Shah Shuja was taken prisoner, the English cantonments outside Kabul were attacked, the commissariat fort—the storehouse of the food supply—taken.

Elphinstone was quite incapable of directing affairs. Two agonizing months were spent waiting for a relief force, but neither General Knott nor General Sale was able to come to the rescue. The ammunition was used up; food was scarcely to be had. In this crisis Macnaghten entered into negotiations with the leader, Akbar Khan, who demanded unconditional surrender. This was indignantly refused, but it soon became evident that there was no alternative but annihilation. Macnaghten went in person to make terms with Akbar. As the Englishman approached the Afghan's face lit up with "diabolical ferocity," and, raising his hand suddenly, he shot him dead. Three other British officers met the same fate. Macnaghten's body was treated with savage indignity, mutilated and exposed in the streets of Kabul.

The English were now in a desperate plight and Elphinstone was compelled to plead with Akbar to allow the safe retreat of the British force in Kabul. Six hostages were to be left behind for the safe return of Dost and his family, and to this Akbar assented.

Four thousand soldiers, many of them natives, and over 10,000 camp-followers, women and children, set out from Kabul on 6th January 1842. In the bitter cold of the Afghan winter the retreating army made its way to the Koord Kabul pass, a narrow slit between the mountains, five miles in length, so overshadowed that not a gleam of winter's sun could pierce

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its darkness. In the narrow gorges, thickly covered with snow, groups of wild natives lay in wait for the retreating host. Thousands perished from cold, thousands at the hand of the tribesmen; the way was marked by corpses, the snow was dyed with blood. "It was no longer a retreating army, it was a rabble in chaotic flight." Akbar Khan appeared mysteriously from time to time and professed himself unable to protect the wretched fugitives. At length he offered to take captive the women, married men, children and the wounded, with General Elphinstone and his second in command. Their only hope of life lay in accepting his offer.

The remnant of the miserable host, dwindling hour by hour, pressed on. The way led through the Jugdulak Pass, where further reinforcements of tribesmen lay in wait for their prey. Every step of the way had to be fought desperately, and only six of our army survived. They spurred their horses towards Jelalabad, but one solitary figure alone, Dr Brydon, drooping from wounds and weariness, reached the gates of the town.

General Sale still occupied Jelalabad, which was now closely besieged by Akbar Khan. Sale, at the time of the retreat from Kabul, had been ordered by Elphinstone to evacuate the town and return to India. But the heroic Lady Sale, who was among Akbar's prisoners, wrote to her husband, urging him to disobey the summons, and telling him she preferred death to dishonour. Reassured by the intelligence that General Pollock was on his way from India with a large force to relieve him, Sale, after a time, decided to attack the Afghans in the open, and defeated Akbar Khan on 7th April 1842. General Pollock duly arrived, but it was not till the



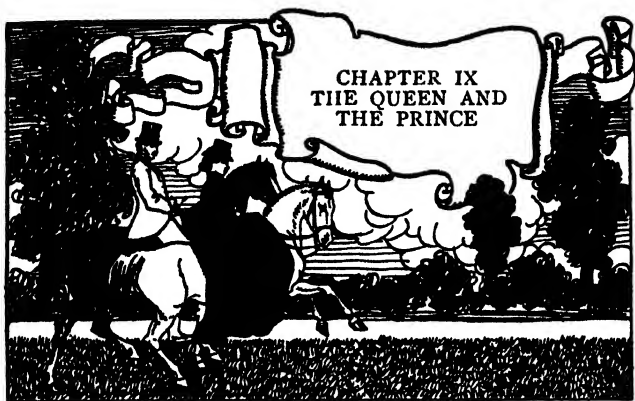
The Defeat of Akbar Khan

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20th August that the English forces left Jelalabad and turned their faces towards Kabul, with stern resolve to fight their way back through the blood-stained passes. General Knott, who had evacuated Kandahar, joined them in Kabul, and as an act of vengeance for the death of Macnaghten, General Pollock ordered that the magnificent building of the Bazaar, the pride and glory of the town, the centre of commerce for Afghanistan, should be burnt to the ground.

Akbār's prisoners, who had kept up their spirits during months of tense anxiety, had been moved from fort to fort, not knowing from day to day what fate awaited them. Shah Shuja had been murdered and General Elphinstone had died. On 20th September 1842, after nine months' captivity, the prisoners were released. "Our joy," wrote one of them of the meeting with their friends at Kabul, "was too great, too overwhelming for tongue to utter."

The English evacuated Afghanistan, which they should never have entered, and left its people to manage their own affairs. The lesson they learnt from this terrible page in their history was summed up by Lord Ellenborough when he said that "to force a sovereign upon a reluctant people would be as inconsistent with the policy as it is with the principles of the British Government."



CHAPTER IX
THE QUEEN AND
THE PRINCE

QUEEN VICTORIA was playing well her part in public life. Since the friction about the ladies of the bed-chamber all had gone smoothly. As we have seen, she came to the throne so young that she had to be taught her duties as constitutional ruler, and she was a willing pupil. It was her good fortune that her upbringing had not fostered in her too great a sense of her personal importance ; as heir presumptive and not heir apparent, she was spared from cultivating an exaggerated estimate of herself. She early learnt the limitation of her power, for she had a strong and sane personality.

With her brief honeymoon began that idyll of married life which has been rare in palaces. Queen Victoria's wedded life was almost unique in being one of unclouded happiness. Prince Albert gave her all she desired in full measure : love, confidence, comradeship and unswerving loyalty.

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

On 21st November 1840 a child was born to them. In spite of the fact that its mother was a wiser ruler than we had had in England for many generations, there was general disappointment that the baby was a girl. With a mother's pride the Queen wrote to King Leopold: "Your little grandniece is most flourishing; she gains daily in health, strength, and I may add beauty, I think she will be very like her dearest father." A son was born on 9th November 1841 and the Princess Royal ceased to be heir to the throne. He inherited at birth the titles of Duke of Cornwall, Duke of Rothesay, Earl of Carrick, Baron of Renfrew, Lord of the Isles, and Grand Steward of Scotland, and even then he was not fully honoured for his great position of heir apparent to the throne, and within a month the Queen created him Prince of Wales and Earl of Chester. "Know ye," ran the letters patent, "that we have made . . . our most dear son, the Prince of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland . . . Prince of Wales and Earl of Chester . . . and him our said most dear son, . . . as has been accustomed, we do ennoble and invest with the said Principality and Earldom, by girding him with a sword, by putting a coronet on his head, and a gold ring on his finger, and also by delivering a gold rod into his hand, that he may preside there and direct and defend those parts." By his father's wish he received the additional title of Duke of Saxony.

The Queen's joy was unbounded, and she wrote to the King of the Belgians a month after his birth: "I wonder very much who our little boy will be like. You will understand *how* fervent are my prayers and I am sure *everybody's* must be, to see him resemble his

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angelic dearest father in every respect both in body and mind."

Though Prince Albert had the happiness to have the devotion and confidence of the Queen, in other respects he was not so fortunate, and jealousy had a good deal to do with the difficulties of his position. It should have been his duty from the first to direct the household, but he had reason to say somewhat bitterly: "I am only the husband and not the master of the house." The Queen was not able to give him full control, for as a consequence of the fight over the ladies of her household she had learnt that her personal wishes were not paramount.

The interior life of the palace required thorough reorganization. The difficulty of getting the smallest matter attended to was ridiculous. "The Lord Steward finds the fuel," writes Baron Stockmar, "and lays the fire, the Lord Chamberlain lights it. The Lord Chamberlain provides all the lamps; the Lord Steward must clean, trim and light them." The etiquette was almost as rigorous as that of the Spanish Court of an earlier day, where, when a baby prince fell on the fire there was no one sufficiently highly placed in attendance to pull him out.

The Prince after a time was able to take the reins of domestic government into his own hands and place the management of the household on a business footing. Within his own circle he was popular; outside he was misunderstood and disliked. His manners, though genial to those who knew him well, were cold and distant to strangers; his scrupulous attention to detail was repellent to the average Englishman, who preferred to "muddle through"; and, to crown all, he had

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

intellectual tastes. The aristocracy of his day for the most part paid little attention to science, literature and art. Their interests lay in the management of their estates, politics, sport and the pleasures of town.

Though Prince Albert remained an alien to the country at large he gradually gained the confidence of the Queen's ministers. He scrupulously refrained from influencing her in grave political matters, until he was recognized as her adviser. She begged her ministers to give her the right to confide public affairs more fully to her husband, and, after she had been married some time, the request was granted. Both the Queen and the Prince held that the sovereign's influence in foreign politics should be felt, and the Queen was anxious that her husband should have access to foreign despatches, and help her to be in close touch with the Foreign Office in order that she might assert her prerogative whenever she thought it necessary.

The daily life of the palace was carefully planned. The royal pair breakfasted at nine, and took a walk before settling down to affairs of State. A short interval before lunch was spent in their hobbies, drawing, etching, or studying music. In the afternoon the Prime Minister called to discuss Government affairs. The Queen went for a drive at five; dinner was at eight, to which distinguished visitors were invited; bedtime at eleven.

The Prince often played chess in the evening with one of the gentlemen in attendance, but this bored him after a time, and the guests who had the honour of being present did not always interest him. He was anxious that people of literary and scientific attainments should be received at Court. The Queen was

THE QUEEN AND THE PRINCE

unable to agree, for, though she had been well educated according to the lights of those days, she was sensible enough to know that she would be at a disadvantage among scholars and scientists.

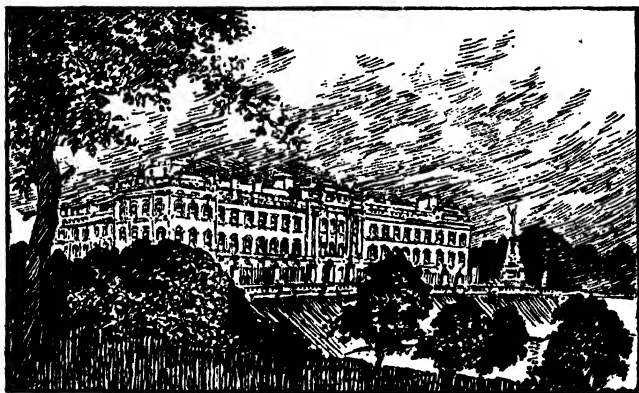
The Prince made a careful study of the questions of the day in order to be a wise counsellor. "I study politics with great industry," he wrote, "speak quite openly to the ministers on all subjects so as to gain information, and I quietly endeavour to be of as much use to Victoria in her position as I can." He did not work in vain. Lord Melbourne, on his resignation, said that he had "the consolation of feeling that he left a devoted and sagacious and permanent counsellor at the Queen's side." "For four years," he wrote to her, "I have seen you every day, but it is so different now from what it would have been in 1838. The Prince understands everything so well and has a clever able head." Sir Robert Peel also recognized the ability of the Prince, and spoke of him as "one of the most extraordinary young men I have ever met."

The Queen and her husband loved music, and he played the organ well. In 1842 they received Mendelssohn, who wrote afterward enthusiastically of his reception, representing Buckingham Palace as the most pleasant and comfortable English house that he had been in. He gives a delightful picture of the simple relations between the royal pair. The Prince played to him, the Queen sang to him one of his own songs; it was altogether homelike and sweet.

Prince Albert is credited with being instrumental in putting a stop to duelling. In George III's day gentlemen overheated with wine quarrelled at the dinner-table, said hasty and ill-considered things to one

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

another, and resorted to a duel to settle what was called an "affair of honour." These duels frequently ended fatally. Many eminent men were challenger or challenged. The Duke of Wellington took offence at some remarks of Lord Winchelsea, as to his change of front over the Catholic Emancipation Bill in 1829, and promptly called him out. The Duke missed his aim, Winchelsea fired into the air and apologized. To refuse to accept a challenge was to write oneself down a



Buckingham Palace

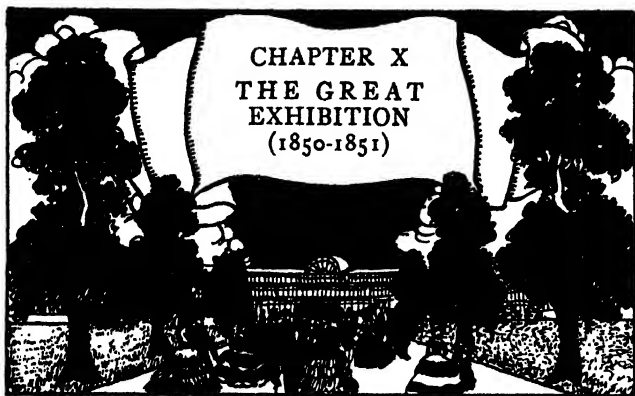
coward. Owing to the Prince's known dislike to this barbaric custom the laws against duelling were put rigorously into force. In the army, officers were enjoined to give and accept apologies, and men guilty of taking part in duels were court-martialled.

The Queen was popular with the country, but she did not escape the penalty of her position, and several attempts were made on her life. Without exception, these were the outcome of desire for personal notoriety,

THE QUEEN AND THE PRINCE

and not of any organized plot. Some time before the birth of the Princess Royal the Queen was fired at while driving with her husband on Constitution Hill. "We had hardly proceeded a hundred yards from the palace," wrote the Prince to the Duchess of Gotha, "when I noticed on the footpath at my side a little mean-looking man holding something towards us, but before I quite realized what it was a shot was fired just six paces from us." The bullet passed over the Queen's head; fortunately she was not at all alarmed, and drove straight to her mother's house to assure her of her safety. The assailant, Oxford by name, was found to be insane, and was confined in a lunatic asylum for the rest of his life.

A couple of years afterward, the Queen was twice attacked. The first assailant, John Francis, was tried for high treason and sentenced to death, the sentence being commuted to transportation; the other assailant was a dwarf named Bean. Again, in 1850 and 1867, attacks were made on her, and in 1882 a lunatic fired at her. In every case the Queen did what she could to mitigate the severity of the sentences passed on her would-be murderers.



SINCE Waterloo, nearly forty years had passed, and England had been at peace with Europe. People were beginning to hope that the era of war between civilized countries was at an end, and that the nations would confine their future ambitions to the development of art and commerce.

This feeling found expression in Prince Albert's scheme for an exhibition of the industries of all nations.

"Voice in the rich dawn of an ampler day—
Far-sighted summoner of War and Waste
To fruitful strifes and rivalries of peace."

He deplored the lack of ideas among English manufacturers, who went on producing the same pattern year after year. He felt sure that what was needed to take them out of their groove was that they should be able to study the progress of their craft in other countries, and see how art was applied to manufacture. Such an exhibition as he proposed was no new thing. At the fairs of

THE GREAT EXHIBITION

the Middle Ages at Frankfort, Nuremburg and elsewhere, the thrifty burghers held markets, to which it was their proud boast that merchandise came from every clime. But with the difficulties of transport and the absence of communication by cheap post, these marts were no more than the germ idea of what might be done.

Prince Albert had used his influence to have a commission appointed to take counsel with the commercial magnates and leading manufacturers as to their views on his cherished project. It was a gigantic task that he had set himself, and it is doubtful whether anyone less highly placed and less energetic would have been able to bring the scheme to fruition.

The report of the commission was favourable, but before the Prince's castle in the air could materialize into a crystal palace in Hyde Park, a large sum of money had to be raised. Sixty-four thousand pounds was subscribed and £200,000 guaranteed to meet the expenses.

At a dinner at the Mansion House given by the Lord Mayor to the promoters of this festival of peace and industry (21st May 1850) Prince Albert said that the exhibition was to "give the world a true test, a living picture, of the point of industrial development at which the whole of mankind has arrived, and a new starting point from which all nations will be able to direct their further exertions."

After a good deal of opposition and criticism Hyde Park was decided on as the site of the exhibition, and architects were invited to submit plans suitable for housing the vast collection. A low brick edifice was on the point of being chosen, when Joseph Paxton, the Duke of Devonshire's head gardener, stepped in.

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

He had erected a giant conservatory at Chatsworth where all the beautiful palms and tropical plants could grow freely, and it occurred to him that a similar building, on a magnificent scale, might meet all requirements. On inquiring as to whether it was too late to submit another design, he was told that he might



The Mansion House

have a fortnight in which to prepare his plans. His scheme had everything to recommend it, and was accepted ; it required only iron and glass ; the edifice would be a palace of light, it could easily be removed and rebuilt elsewhere. It seemed to spring up in a night and a day.

“ But yesterday a naked sod
The dandies sneered from Rotten Row,
And cantered o'er it to and fro ;
And see, 'tis done !

THE GREAT EXHIBITION

As though 'twere by a wizard's rod,
A blazing arch of lucid glass
Leaps like a fountain from the grass
To meet the sun ! ”

When the project was on the eve of completion the alarmists were busy with direful prophecies as to what would happen. Great crowds would be attracted to London, foreigners above all ; there would be revolution, assassination of the Queen and the Prince : such were the prognostications of certain hysterical gentlemen. One of their number, Colonel Sibthorpe, deserves mention for the intensity of his prayer that thunder and lightning might destroy the exhibition building ere worse might befall. The King of Prussia, hearing of the horrors anticipated for visitors to London, forbade his brother to attend the opening ceremony.

That day was fixed for 1st May 1851. The Queen and Prince Albert, the Princess Royal and the Prince of Wales, drove to the entrance cheered by vast crowds. The palace more than fulfilled their hopes. Trees with luxuriant foliage stretched their full height toward the vast glass roof, tropical flowers flourished at their feet, fountains played ; it was a scene from fairyland. The exhibition has been surpassed, no doubt, in recent times, but it was the first of its kind, and must have seemed an epitome of all that the heart of man could desire of earthly possession. Beautiful pictures and statuary, gold and silver and jewelled ornament, fine china, delicate glass, coarse earthenware, many-hued silks, rich fabrics, simple homespun, pure white napery ; products of field and factory ; machinery ; all were gathered here in ordered array.

The royal standard fluttered above the flags of other



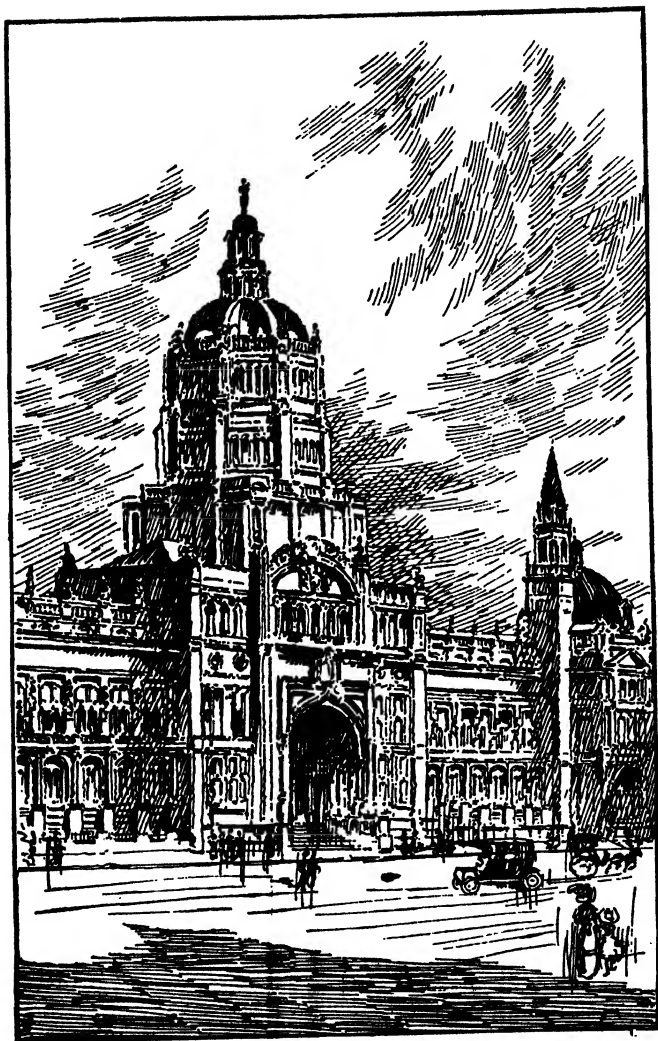
The Great Exhibition

THE GREAT EXHIBITION

nations, and the National Anthem rose from hundreds of voices as the Queen, in the prime of youth, and the Prince, handsome and of gallant bearing, with their two children, walked to the throne. The Prince read the report of the Commission, and presented it to his consort, the Archbishop of Canterbury offered a prayer, the Hallelujah Chorus was sung, and the great building was declared open.

The Queen wrote, with a heart full of gratitude, in her diary: "The great event has taken place—a complete and beautiful triumph—a glorious and touching sight, one which I shall ever be proud of for my beloved Albert and my country. The park presented a wonderful spectacle—crowds streaming through it, carriages and troops passing, quite like the coronation day, and for me the same anxiety, much greater anxiety on account of my beloved Albert. The day was bright and all was bustle and excitement. The Green Park and Hyde Park were one densely crowded mass of human beings, in the highest good humour and most enthusiastic. I never saw Hyde Park look as it did—as far as the eye could reach. A little rain fell just as we started, but before we came near the Crystal Palace the sun shone and gleamed upon the gigantic edifice. . . . The glimpse of the transept through the iron gates, the waving palms, flowers, statues, myriads of people filling the galleries and seats around with the flourish of trumpets as we entered, gave us a sensation which I can never forget."

The exhibition remained open six months and was visited by over six millions of people. A large sum of money was over when all expenses had been paid, and this was invested in the purchase of an estate on which



The Victoria and Albert Museum, South Kensington

THE GREAT EXHIBITION

subsequently were erected the South Kensington Museum, the Albert Hall and other public buildings

Eventually the exhibition building itself was re-erected at Sydenham, where it still stands as the Crystal Palace, after having experienced varied fortunes as a public pleasure resort. In 1913 it was purchased for the nation by a public subscription of £90,000 organized by *The Times* newspaper.

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

Letters, even when sent by mail train, are tardy messengers when urgent news has to be transmitted. A great invention—the electric telegraph—was to put people all over the world in almost instantaneous communication with one another.

At the time that Rowland Hill was urging postal reform students of electricity were experimenting with the telegraph. For years the conveyance of messages by means of electric currents, passing along specially prepared wires, had been the dream of scientists, but there were many difficulties to overcome before telegraph wires were put up all over the country, and telegraphy became one of the most useful servants of man. A special code was invented, known as the Morse Code, a system of dots and dashes, whereby the time taken in transmitting messages was very greatly reduced.

At first this method of communication was only used for inland messages, but in 1850 a submarine cable was laid at the bottom of the English Channel between Dover and Calais, thus bringing France and England into close touch with one another. A far more ambitious scheme was attempted in 1858—no less than to lay a cable 2500 miles in length on the bed of the Atlantic Ocean (a depth of over two miles), and thus establish telegraphic communication between England and the United States. The English ship *Agamemnon*, and the American *Nigeria*, were to lay it. They were to meet in mid-Atlantic and there join the cable, after which each vessel was to proceed homeward, laying it as she went. The feat was accomplished, and messages of congratulation were sent through by the Queen and the President of the United States, and the

HANDS ACROSS THE SEA

Mayors of London and New York exchanged greeting. But, unfortunately, the current was not strong enough ; the messages became fainter and fainter, and finally ceased. The first Atlantic cable was a failure, but the principle had been established, and scientists, with that wonderful patience with which great inventions are perfected for the world, set to work again. In 1866 the *Great Eastern*, by far the largest steamship of its time, accompanied by the steamers, *Albany* and *Medway*, started from Valentia on the west coast of Ireland, to lay another cable. In mid-ocean a defect was discovered which had to be remedied there and then, but with this exception all went well. On 27th July 1866 the Queen and President Johnson exchanged greetings. Since that time electric cables have been laid across the other great ocean-beds, so that we are in direct communication with a greater part of the world, and few events of any importance happen which are not within twenty-four hours recorded in our daily papers. In 1868 the telegraph lines were bought by the Government, and since then the public telegraph service has been administered by the Post Office.

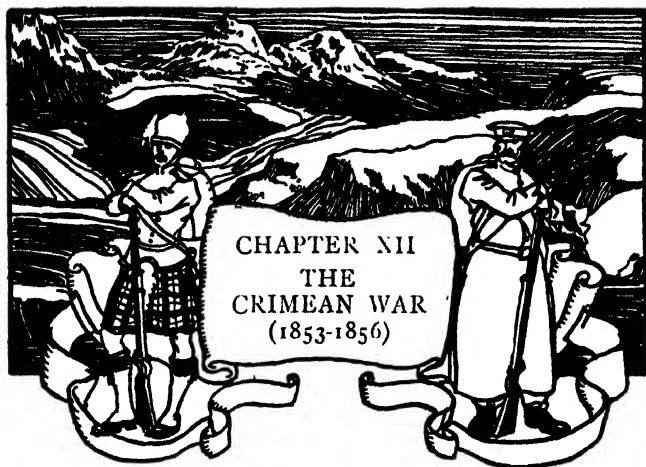
The telephone is another useful invention which followed on to the telegraph. By means of electric vibrations the exact tones of the human voice can be transmitted to fairly long distances. But, though this method of communication is almost perfect, in that one hears the exact words spoken, it has not banished the telegraph, partly because it is more expensive to set up and cannot be used over such long distances.

Professor Huxley finely sums up the place held by the various applications of electricity among the great inventions of the world: "In its influence on the

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

course of human affairs, this invention takes its place beside that of gunpowder, which tended to destroy the effect of inequalities of fighting men ; of printing, which tended to destroy the effect of inequalities in wealth among learning men ; of steam transport, which has done the like for travelling men. All these gifts of science are aids to the process of levelling up ; of removing the ignorant and baneful prejudices of nation against nation, province against province and class against class."

Another invention which dates from this time was also to have the effect of making us know and understand one another better, and not our fellow-creatures only, but the earth on which we live and the stars above our head. This was the discovery of the action of light on specially prepared and arranged metal plates or glass. It was called Photography (from the two Greek words, *phōs*, light, and *graphō*, I write). The first photographs were known as daguerreotypes, from their inventor Daguerre, who in 1839 took portraits direct on to *silvered copper plates*. This was an expensive process and copies could not be printed from the plate. In 1850 the present method—that is, of taking photographs on specially prepared glass plates—was invented. These plates were called negatives, from the fact that the object was reversed—light colours came out dark, and dark colours light. From these negatives any number of "positive" photographs could be printed by a very simple process on suitably prepared paper. The uses of photography grow from year to year ; for the human eye may not always observe correctly but the camera cannot err.

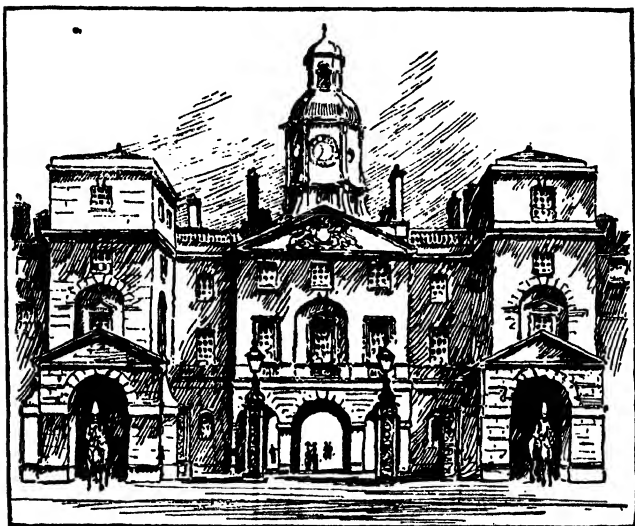


THE Great Exhibition which was to mark the triumph of peace also marked its close. The truce between England and Europe came to an end. What was the reason why England, with France as her ally, took up the cause of Turkey and went to war with Russia? Turkey and Russia are neighbours, and at this time Turkey was a declining power, the "sick man" of Europe. Time was when Turkey was dreaded by the whole of Western Europe; she extended her domain and made conquests in Greece, but her own people remained strangers in the house of civilization. The Turks were Mohammedans, but the Sultan also held sway over a large population of Greek Christians. Neither in trade nor commerce was Turkey a progressive nation; art and literature she had none. The Turks were essentially fighters, nothing

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

more. Their women were degraded, if not in themselves, at least in their circumstances; they lived in harems isolated from public life, a dreary, monotonous existence.

Russia, with nearly half the Continent under her rule, had an immense and growing influence in Europe.



The Horse Guards, Whitehall

The Czar Nicholas was fired with ambition, as his predecessors Peter and Catherine had been, to obtain possession of Constantinople. Russia had little outlet for her commerce on the south, for the Black Sea is practically an inland lake, and Constantinople at the entrance of the Bosphorus (the channel which connects

THE CRIMEAN WAR

the Black Sea with the Archipelago), commanded the portal of the Mediterranean.

In 1844 Nicholas had visited England and made certain suggestions to our ministers. He hinted that Turkey should be partitioned, and Great Britain was to have a substantial reward for taking part in the dismemberment. He did not meet with a rebuff, but neither did he receive any encouragement. Great Britain feared the advance of Russia in Europe too much to be willing to aid in the realization of her ambitions.

It was easy to quarrel with Turkey, and the cause of the original dispute which led to the Crimean War was a trivial one. The dominions of Turkey in Asia included the Holy Land, and the shrines sacred to Christianity were in the hands of the Mohammedans, just as they had been at the time of the Crusades. The Sultan had favoured the Greek Church in allowing their monks to be the principal guardians of the holy shrines, for they had possession of the key of the large door of the Church of the Nativity at Bethlehem, while the Latin monks had only the key of a small door. The Pope at Rome now claimed priority, and was supported by France, whilst the Czar Nicholas supported the Greek Church. The Sultan was indifferent, but would have liked to please both parties. Russia found another grievance against Turkey, for it was known that the Sultan treated his Christian subjects badly, and the Czar claimed the right to take them under his protection.

Louis Napoleon, the nephew of the great Napoleon, did not feel himself to be seated firmly upon the throne of France, and he believed that a great war would

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

divert the attention of his subjects from internal affairs. The quarrel about the Holy Places seemed likely to furnish just the excuse that was needed.

England refused to acknowledge Russia's claim to a protectorate over the Christians in the Turkish Empire, for, as Lord Clarendon, at that time Foreign Secretary, wrote to our ambassador at Constantinople, Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, it would result in 10,000,000 Greeks regarding "the Emperor as their supreme protector, and their allegiance to the Sultan would be little more than nominal, while his own independence would dwindle into vassalage."

The Czar sent Prince Mentchikoff as his ambassador to Constantinople, and the dispute about the Holy Places was settled. The key of the Church at Bethlehem was to be in the hands of the Latin monks, a Greek priest was to be doorkeeper, and all nations were to be allowed the right of entry.

This was a triumph for France, and the Czar became more determined than ever to be recognized as the protector of the Christian subjects of the Sultan. He demanded that the Porte "should give a written guarantee confirming all the privileges of the Greek Church in Turkey." Lord Stratford, ever an enemy of Russia, and very influential with the Sultan, dictated a refusal. England thus definitely pledged herself to check the Czar's ambitions.

In order to enforce the claim, on 2nd July 1853 a Russian army crossed the River Pruth, the boundary between Russia and Turkey in Europe, and occupied the Danubian Provinces, Moldavia and Wallachia.

France joined with England in determining to oppose the Czar's schemes, and English and French fleets were

THE CRIMEAN WAR

sent to the Dardanelles, with the ostensible purpose of protecting Constantinople and frightening Russia.

In July 1853 a conference took place between Great Britain, France, Austria and Prussia at Vienna. The Powers were unanimous in agreeing that Turkey was right in resisting Russia's demands. They sent the Austrian ambassador to try to make terms with Russia, but in vain.

The general feeling in England was strongly in favour of Turkey and supported war with Russia on her behalf, but the Prime Minister, Lord Aberdeen, was for peace. He had no belief in the Turks for, he said, "their whole system is radically vicious and abominable, . . . lawless oppression and cruelty."

The Russians refused to evacuate the Danube Provinces, and on 23rd October Turkey declared war. On 30th November Russia attacked and destroyed the Turkish fleet at Sinope, and though this was a legitimate method of warfare, great indignation was felt in England, and when Lord Stratford heard the news he exclaimed: "Thank God! that's war!" We had waited long enough, and it was now decided to step in to save Turkey from annihilation. On 25th February 1854 Greville wrote in his diary: "The rage for this war gets every day more vehement, and nobody seems to fear anything but that we may not spend men and money enough in waging it. The few sober people who have courage enough to hint at its being impolitic are almost hooted down, and their warnings and scruples are treated with indignation and contempt."

The understanding between Great Britain and France was now confirmed by treaty, and on 27th March 1854, the Czar having failed to reply to the

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

demand that he should evacuate the Provinces, the Allies formally declared war with Russia.

Russia had Europe against her, for Prussia and Austria though they did not join the war insisted on the evacuation of the Provinces, and the action of Austria became so menacing that the Russians withdrew on 2nd August, and recrossed the frontier. Lord Raglan who, as Lord Fitzroy Somerset, had seen service in the Peninsular War and at Waterloo, was commander-in-chief of the English forces; Marshal St Arnaud commanded the French, and Omar Pasha the Turkish army. Sir Charles Napier was Admiral of the Fleet, which was preparing to attack the Russian fleet in the Baltic.

To pay the expenses of the war the income tax was doubled and taxes were increased on malt and spirits.

On the advice of Louis Napoleon the Crimea was chosen as the theatre of war. On 14th September the allied armies, consisting of 25,000 French, 27,000 British and about 8000 Turks, landed at Old Fort, north of Sebastopol, and marched south toward that town, which was an important Russian arsenal. They met with no check till within sight of the little river, Alma. On the heights above the stream they saw what seemed to be a dark ridge of rock, but on coming nearer they realized that it was the Russian army, commanded by Prince Mentchikoff.

A consultation was held and a plan of attack decided upon. General Bosquet, with a French battalion and a company of Zouaves, the crack regiment in the French army, whose men were noted for their agility and daring, was to lead the attack. The French crossed the river, gained the heights, and soon were in hand-to-

THE CRIMEAN WAR

hand conflict with the Russian army. After fierce fighting for some hours the gallant Zouaves compelled the Russians to retreat and planted their flag on the crest of the hill.

Meantime the British army was approaching, and to stay their march the Russian general had ordered that the village of Bouliouk on the banks of the Alma should be fired. Nearly choked with smoke, and under a fierce storm of shot and shell, the English pressed forward, crossed the river and made a gallant dash through the smoking hamlet, still under a tremendous fire from the Russian guns. The waters of the Alma were red with blood, but, undaunted by heavy losses, the British replied with a hail of bullets and, rushing through the vineyards that grew on to the water's bank, forced their way up the heights. Three divisions of the British army were actually engaged. The quaintly attired Highlanders under Sir Colin Campbell inspired terror in the Russian breasts; they seemed not men but devils. After three hours and a half fierce fighting all that was left of the Russian army was put to flight. The terrible toll of death was 5000 Russian killed and wounded, and 3400 of the Allies. *The Times* correspondent said: "The hills of Greenwich Park in fair time are not more densely covered with human beings than were the heights of the Alma with dead and dying."

The victory should have been followed up by an immediate march on Sebastopol, then completely at the mercy of the Allies. Unfortunately Lord Raglan, in consideration for the wishes of Marshal St Arnaud, then a dying man, delayed for a couple of days. It was to prove an expensive mistake. On 29th September the

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

French Commander died, and the command was assumed by Marshal Canrobert. The Russians, under their military engineer Todleben, who was to achieve great renown for his remarkable defensive works at Sebastopol, made use of the short respite to blockade the harbour and to strengthen its land defences. Seven vessels were sunk at the entrance, thus effectually preventing any sudden seizure of the town from the sea. The allied army was partly encamped outside the town and partly at Balaklava, six miles distant, "the English arsenal, the English storehouse and the English port." Here stores could be landed and communication could be made with the fleet.

On 17th October 1854 the bombardment began, the English expecting to reduce Sebastopol in a few days. Throughout the campaign their habit of underestimating the strength of the enemy was marked. An attempt was made to take the town by storm but the artillery made little impression on the defences.

The Russians now determined to dislodge the British from the heights of Balaklava, where their position was a strong one. On the morning of the 25th October a Russian army about 12,000 strong appeared. Four redoubts on the hills outside the town had been manned by Turkish soldiers, with a view to checking the Russian army on its approach. The Turks were popularly supposed to be well-nigh invincible when placed behind earthworks, but this time their nerve failed. The Russian army, under General Liprandi, stormed one redoubt after another, and the Turks, after making some resistance, fled. A detachment of Russian cavalry, their blue and silver uniforms glittering in the sun, pressed on over the hills, and advanced at a trot to within

THE CRIMEAN WAR

a few hundred yards of our dragoons. Their first encounter, however, was with a regiment of Highlanders under Sir Colin Campbell, and the shock somewhat disorganized their ranks. Nevertheless they continued to advance upon General Scarlett's Heavy Brigade, watched with breathless eagerness by many of the Allies from the heights above. To the onlookers their onset seemed irresistible, but within a short distance of the English their charge slackened and they came to a dead halt, whereupon the Heavy Brigade took the offensive and charged with such force into the dense mass opposed to them that they disappeared from the view of the watchers on the heights, who feared that they had been utterly annihilated. As they looked, all tense with excitement, they saw signs of a great turmoil, and suddenly the first of the British soldiers broke violently through the ranks of their foes, followed by their comrades. The Heavy Brigade had cleaved their way from one side to the other of the masses opposed to them, and they now turned round, re-formed, and hurled themselves once more upon the Russians, fighting their way through to the other side and inflicting such loss that the enemy fled in disorder from the field. Considering the great numbers of the Russians compared to those of the Heavy Brigade, it was a glorious victory.

The triumph was short-lived, however, for at this moment a terrible disaster happened. The Russians had pushed forward artillery upon the heights on both sides of a valley, and it had been arranged by the Allies that the French should attack on the one side and the English on the other, thus rolling back the two "horns" of the advancing enemy simultaneously. An order was now brought from Lord Lucan, the commander of

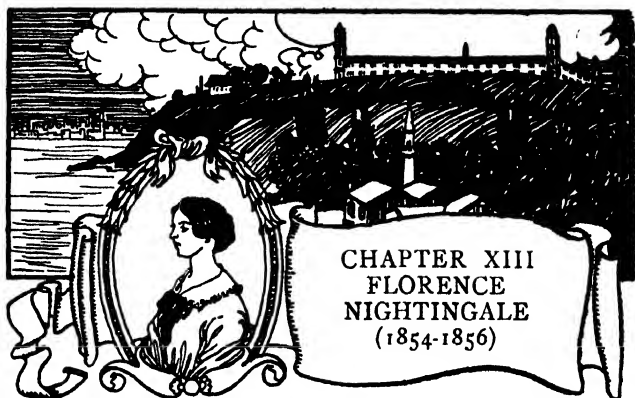
FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

the English cavalry, to Lord Cardigan, the leader of the Light Brigade, to charge along the heights which the English were to attack. Unfortunately the two commanders were on very bad terms with each other, and this may have led to the fatal misunderstanding of the message. For Cardigan, instead of charging along the heights, led his 670 men through a veritable valley of death against a strong force of artillery at its farther end.

“ Cannon to right of them,
Cannon to left of them,
Cannon in front of them
Volley'd and thundered.”

Those who watched the brilliant spectacle could scarcely believe their eyes, as the soldiers, riding orderly, as though on parade, swept into the valley. The smoke from the guns on both heights and in front largely obscured the field; inside that fatal valley horses and men were falling at every pace, and riderless steeds were galloping in terror upon the plain. Four hundred men lay dead and wounded after that gallant and futile charge, which practically deprived the English of light cavalry during the remainder of the campaign. The charge called forth expressions of admiration from all Europe, but it is well summed up by the saying of General Bosquet: “ It is magnificent but it is not war.”

So amazed were the Russians that no further attack was made that day.



THE Charge of the Light Brigade was not the only blunder of the Crimean War ; men died of disease and cholera as surely as from the deadly fire of the Russian guns, and the tragedy of it was that many of the deaths could have been prevented.

The sufferers were taken in ships to Scutari on the Bosphorus, where a Turkish hospital had been put at the disposal of the British forces. The doctors did what they could, but there were too few of them. Many of the wounded received no attention either on the battlefield or on board ship, and days passed before their festering wounds were dressed. Cholera patients were embarked on the same ships as the wounded, and in the absence of the most ordinary precautions the wonder is that any survived. The hospital itself was in a state of confusion. There were no nurses worthy of the name, no dressers, insufficient surgeons, food was

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

coarse and scanty, and medical comforts were not to be had. The French wounded were in better plight, for sisters of charity had accompanied their expedition in large numbers and nursed the sick and dying with skill and untiring devotion.

The insufficient training of officers and men contributed to the general confusion. During the forty years' peace, military training had become most inefficient. "All pipeclay and drills," a sergeant said, with "fire low and hit 'em in the legs, boys," as a word of counsel in face of the enemy. Many of the raw recruits had never fired a gun in their lives, and officers in command were little better equipped for their task. In spite of these drawbacks the soldiers gave a good account of themselves both in battle and in the long, weary months working in the trenches before Sebastopol. The bitter Russian winter set in early, a gale destroyed many of the transport ships in which were clothing, blankets and provisions, and the ragged hungry soldiers fell an easy prey to sickness.

The Times correspondent—this was the first campaign in which newspaper representatives were sent to the front—described, in the columns of that journal, the terrible state of affairs, and an appeal was issued to the women of England to come forward in this hour of their country's need. Florence Nightingale read of the misery of our troops, and wrote to Sidney Herbert, the Secretary at War, offering her services as a nurse in the Crimea. Her letter crossed one from him begging her to undertake the task of organizing the nursing service, and telling her that her example would "multiply the good of all time."

Who was Florence Nightingale, and why was she

FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE

selected for this task? She was the daughter of wealthy parents and had been brought up in luxury, having enjoyed the rare advantage, for girls in those days, of an excellent education. She was very gifted and availed herself of the opportunities that were given her. But with all her endowments the bent of her nature was toward alleviating the sufferings of the poor, then sadly neglected in times of sickness. She visited them in their homes and with intelligent sympathy did what she could. She felt, however, that she was greatly handicapped by lack of practical knowledge and efficient training, and she determined to study in medical schools and hospitals, first in England and later in Germany. Eventually she returned to England to become director of a hospital for sick governesses in Harley Street. Here her organizing ability had scope, and she gained practical experience in hospital methods.

In less than a week after she had volunteered her services, she had gathered together thirty-eight trained nurses and the devoted band sailed for Scutari, arriving there 4th November 1854. She immediately set to work to make order out of chaos. The scenes the nurses had to witness were so terrible that four of them had not the courage to remain and returned to England. A few days after they landed, one of the nurses wrote home: "It is necessary to be as near the scene of war as we are, to know the horrors which we have seen and heard of, and I know not which sight is most heart-rending—to witness fine strong men and youths worn down by exhaustion, and sinking under it; or others coming in, as many hundreds did yesterday fearfully wounded." The whole of yesterday one could only

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

forget one's own existence, for it was spent first in sewing the men's mattresses together, and then in washing them, and assisting the surgeons when we could in dressing their ghastly wounds. . . . I expect to find two more dead on going round this morning ; that will be a proportion of eleven to thirty in two days. Wine would be of immense service to some of the nurses just before going into the wards. We have not seen a drop of milk, and the bread is extremely sour, the butter most filthy. It is Irish butter in a state of decomposition, and the meat is more like moist leather than food."

A constant stream of sick and wounded poured into the hospital, and Florence Nightingale never wearied in her unceasing effort to save their lives. At night-time when she walked the wards, carrying a shaded light, the rough soldiers kissed her shadow as it passed.

"A Lady with a Lamp shall stand
In the great history of the land,
A noble type of good,
Heroic womanhood."

Ten days after the battle of Balaklava the Russians again attacked the British forces outside the town at Inkermann. A thick mist hung over the country, and in the gloom the Russians advanced to the English lines. The battle consisted of a series of desperate hand-to-hand conflicts. Bayonet clashed with bayonet, and for three hours 8000 of our men held their ground against over 40,000 Russians. In the afternoon they were reinforced by 6000 French soldiers, and at last the battle was won by the Allies. It was a memorable victory, and has been called a soldier's battle, for



The Storming of the Malakoff by the French

110

FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE

the thick mist prevented the generals from directing the course of the stubborn fight and the honours are due to the rank and file of the army. Both sides lost heavily; 2300 of our men fell, and well might Lord Raglan say that he could not dwell on the after-scene of the battlefield.

Had Lord Raglan followed up this victory by a march to Sebastopol the war might have terminated, but he decided otherwise, and for ten weary months the Allies continued the siege.

The Government at home was made the scapegoat of the mismanagement of the war, and public feeling was so hostile that Lord Aberdeen resigned, and Lord Palmerston became Prime Minister.

In January 1855 Cavour, the Sardinian minister, advised Victor Emmanuel, King of Sardinia, to join the Allies, and 15,000 Italian soldiers were sent to the Crimea. In this European war Cavour saw the chance of realizing the dream of a united Italy, and making his country rank among the great European Powers.

Many attempts were made to take the great Russian fortress of the Malakoff, the key to Sebastopol. Letters home tell of small skirmishes in which many lives were sacrificed without practical result, and of the far greater loss of life from the hardships of the siege in the early months of the year. One writer relates that "the continued rain has prevented the men from lighting their fires on the ground; no attempt has been made to provide covering or cooking sheds, even of the roughest description; and, in instances without number, the men have been content to eat the salt pork as issued, in a raw state, with their biscuit. . . . In the same wet clothes, with the same wet blanket which he has worn

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

round him in the trenches, the soldier has to lie down on the wet ground of his tent. . . .”

Well might the Czar Nicholas say that his best Generals were General January and General February. On 2nd March 1855 he died, and his son, Alexander II, succeeded him.

Attempts were now made to end the war, and a conference of the great Powers took place at Vienna, but Russia refused to accept the terms of the proposed treaty and the siege of Sebastopol dragged on its weary way.

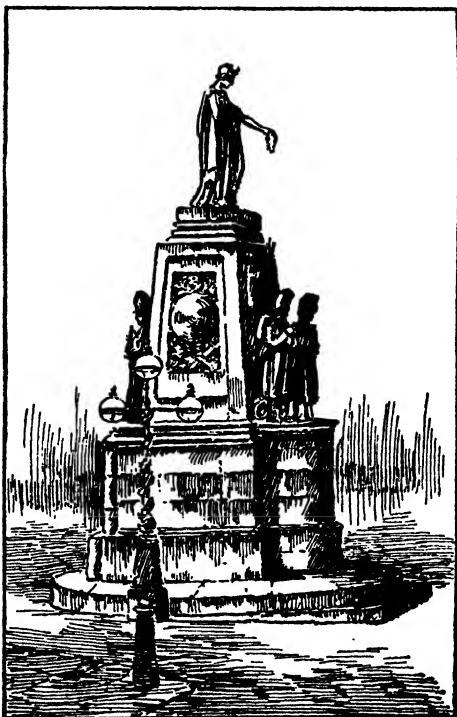
Lord Raglan himself fell a victim to cholera, and died on 28th June 1855. He was succeeded by General Simpson.

On 8th September the French made a final attack on the Malakoff, and in less than a quarter of an hour their flag flew from the parapets of the fort that had resisted so many desperate assaults. The Russians withdrew from the south side of Sebastopol, and though the English attack on the Redan failed, the Allies continued the bombardment and the Russian General, Prince Gortchakoff, at last decided to fire and evacuate the town, and the Allies took possession of a burning ruin.

With the taking of Sebastopol the war virtually came to an end. The alliance between France and England at the seat of war had not always worked smoothly, and had led to many difficulties, though the French soldiers had fought gallantly and well throughout the campaign. We have seen how, after the victory of the Alma, Lord Raglan, in deference to the wishes of Marshal St Arnaud, had delayed marching on Sebastopol, and valuable time had been lost. On

FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE

other occasions he had to yield to General Canrobert, and thus the war was unduly prolonged. As Kinglake,



The Crimea Memorial

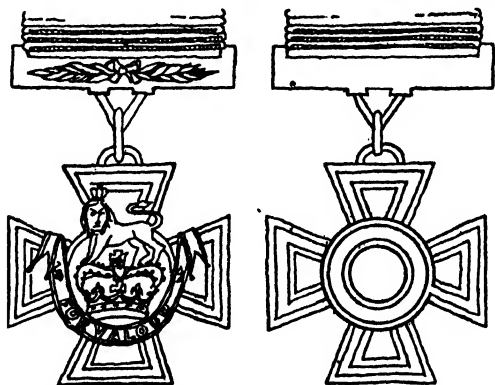
the historian of the Crimea, wrote: "What benumbed the Allies was the Alliance."

A congress was opened at Paris, 25th February 1856, between England, France, Austria, Prussia, Turkey and Sardinia. The terms of peace arranged for

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Turkey's independence, on the Sultan promising to ameliorate the lot of his Christian subjects. The Black Sea was thrown open to the merchantmen of every nation ; the Danubean Provinces and Servia were given independence, though Turkey had still nominal power over them. Later on the Provinces, Moldavia and Wallachia, combined and founded the kingdom of Roumania.

The Crimean War is often looked upon as a gigantic



The Victoria Cross

mistake, but it had far-reaching results, the most important one in European politics being that it imposed an effective bar to the realization of the dreams of Peter and Catherine and Nicholas for the possession of Constantinople. England had nothing personal to gain in the struggle, but Victor Emmanuel won for his subjects a united Italy.

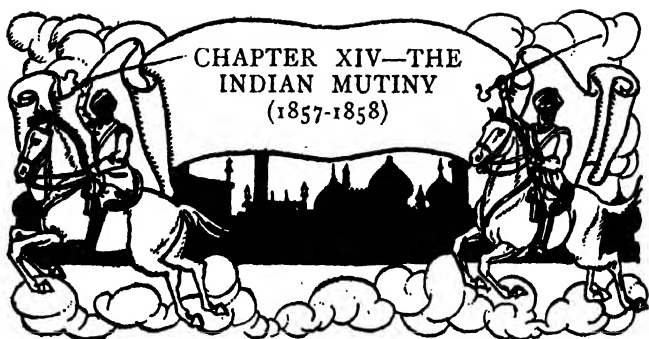
The worn and weary and wounded troops returned and were reviewed by the Queen, and each man was presented with the Crimean medal. She herself

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pinned the medal on the breast of Lord Troubridge, who had lost both his feet at Inkermann, and had refused to desert his post till the battle was won.

As a further commemoration of the heroism of the men a new decoration, the Victoria Cross, was instituted. This is awarded to men of the army and navy who have shown conspicuous bravery in face of the enemy. It is a simple bronze cross embossed with the crown and a lion, and the words, "For Valour."

In April 1855 the Emperor and Empress of the French were eagerly welcomed in England when they came to visit the Queen.



THE history of the English occupation of, India dates back to the reign of Elizabeth when in the year 1600 the East India Company was founded with 218 members under the title of "The Governor and Company of the Merchants of London trading to the East Indies." This company, during the succeeding reigns, gradually acquired immense power and influence. Its servants not only traded for themselves but embarked on a career of conquest, and to their action a great part of our Empire in the East is due.

By the victory of Plassey (1757) Clive, who became the first Governor-General of India, won Bengal for England. A hundred years after Plassey we had to fight for our lives to retain our hold on India.

Lord Dalhousie became Governor-General of India in 1848, and for eight years he bent all his energies to the consolidation of the Empire. He annexed many provinces, for it was his policy when a native ruler died without a direct heir to consider the native right

THE INDIAN MUTINY

to the throne as lapsed, and put the territory under an English governor. His last act before returning to England was to dethrone the worthless King of Oudh, and leave Sir Henry Lawrence in command.

Besides increasing British rule he had done his best to put down some of the more barbarous Indian customs. Thus he abolished *suti*, that terrible rite by which a widow was burnt on her husband's funeral pyre, and another hideous practice, that of killing infant children. Though this was prohibited in the sacred books, the *Vedas* and the *Koran*, the custom still prevailed. Baby girls of the Ranjut tribe were thrown into the Ganges, for it was considered a disgrace for a girl to remain unmarried and the expense of securing a husband was a heavy one, thus only one daughter of a family was allowed to survive. And since the crocodiles ate up the drowning babies, due reverence was paid to them by the parents of the hapless little ones.

But such customs, barbaric as they might be, were hallowed to the people of the East by centuries of habit, and the natives regarded with distrust and alarm any interference with them. They were thoroughly scared by the quick march of reform. The wonders of Western civilization, railways and the telegraph, were introduced into India and added to the general dislike of change that possessed the natives. The two chief religions in India were the Hindu and the Mohammedan, and it was feared, and not altogether without cause, that the English would attempt to enforce Christianity on the natives. Zealous; and not over-wise, officers commanded their troops with the service book in one hand and the Bible in the other. The English were the governing race, and the less

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

intelligent among them showed that they considered the Orientals as markedly their inferiors. This was especially galling to educated Indians, and was harder to bear because of the fact that they were not allowed to fill high positions in the Company's service.

To realize the situation in India it is important to know something of the system of caste. Neither intellect nor wealth can raise a Hindu's social position. As he is born, so must he remain. The highest caste is that of the Brahmans, who at the creation, it is said, came from the mouth of Brahma, the creator. Their mission on earth is to rule. Next in rank come the princes and warriors, then the husbandmen, and so on.

In order to administer the vast territory we had enlisted a large native army; out of 300,000 troops nine-tenths were native soldiers or sepoys. In the service a man of lower caste might become subahdar (native captain) and have men of higher caste under him. This position counted for nothing in private life, where the officer would bow down before the Brahman private. The native officers did not, however, take the same position as the English officers; they held their commission from the Governor-General and not the sovereign, and the youngest English second lieutenant ranked as senior to the oldest Indian greybeard, who might have become the highest Risaldar Major in the cavalry. And in no case whatever did native officers command any but sepoy regiments.

Our hold was strengthened by the fact that the Hindus and Mohammedans were opposed to one another and found it easier to accept our rule than to agree among themselves. This was indeed fortunate, for the hour had struck when the ability of England to

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retain India was to be put to the test. The time was propitious, for England had lost prestige through the disastrous retreat from Kabul, and the stories which were told of the mismanagement in the Crimea had not increased native respect for British administration.

A cause, trivial in itself, was to unite Hindu and Mohammedan in a common effort to throw off the English yoke, and to set the smouldering flame of discontent ablaze. The old Brown Bess had been superseded by a newer rifle, the cartridges for which were wrapped in greased paper, and the sepoy had to bite off the top of the cartridge before inserting it in their weapon. Now, the cow was sacred to the Hindu and the pig held in abomination by the Mohammedans, and the rumour went abroad that the paper was greased with the fat of these animals. The sepoy believed that this was a deliberate insult to their religion, and would listen to no explanation. The greased paper was analysed and the rumour proved to be false; it was changed, and the natives were allowed to grease their own cartridges—but all in vain. Little cakes called *chupatties* were sent from hand to hand and village to village as a signal that the time was ripe for rebellion.

The first sign of revolt occurred at Berampore 25th February 1857, and a month later, 29th March, a serious outbreak took place at Barrackpore. A sepoy, Mangul Pandey, rushed on to the parade ground and shouted to the regiment: "Come out, men—come out, men, you will have to bite the cartridges—come out for your religion." He then turned on the sergeant-major and wounded him with a rifle shot, and the English lieutenant, who now rode on to the ground to quell the disturbance, was immediately killed. The native officer would not allow

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the assassin to be seized, crying out, "If you kill that man you will hang for it."

The 19th Regiment was disbanded and the native commissioned and non-commissioned officers discharged from the army of Bengal to become the missionaries of revolt.

Another outbreak occurred at Meerut, forty miles from Delhi. The sepoys who refused to accept the cartridges were degraded, dismissed the ranks, and sentenced to long terms of imprisonment. Their compatriots meditated immediate revenge, and on Sunday, 10th May, they assembled outside the huts. The English officers who rode across the lines to see what was the matter were shot down. The rebels murdered many of the English, freed their comrades and marched to Delhi. Delhi, the old capital of India (lately restored to its pride of place), was a magnificent city on the right bank of the Jumna, surrounded by an embattled wall enclosing noble buildings of rose-red granite, and gleaming white marble—mosques and houses and shops, and above all the fine palace of the ex-king, the last of the Timours, Bahadur Shah, who lived happily, if not very creditably, under English rule.

To General Hewitt in command at Meerut the most fatal mistake of the mutiny was due. The time for prompt action found him unprepared. He gave no orders for the immediate pursuit of the rebels, and they were able to reach Delhi unmolested, and enter the town. Here the native regiments deserted and joined them. They made their way to the palace, and the feeble king, on the assurance that the rule of the English was over, consented to be proclaimed Emperor. In his name fifty Europeans—Feringhees, as they were

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called—who had put themselves under his protection, were massacred. The troops were joined by the rabble of the town ; English men, women and children were murdered, the houses pillaged and burnt, some few of the residents managing to escape with their lives. The mutineers looted the bank and surrounded the magazine, whereupon the sepoys in charge came out and joined their ranks. Lieutenant Willoughby and the handful of Englishmen that remained were unable to hold the magazine, and orders were given to fire it. Clouds of smoke darkened the sky, and the dull, rumbling sound of the explosion which ensued was heard throughout the city. Two thousand sepoys were killed, but by a miracle Lieutenant Willoughby escaped with his life.

The province of Oudh was another centre of revolt, and the English garrisons at Cawnpore, Allahabad and Lucknow were closely besieged. The Punjab, under Sir John Lawrence, remained loyal.

The Government at home appreciated the gravity of the situation, and troops were hurried out to India. Troopships on their way to China were intercepted, and soldiers from Persia were soon marching to the besieged towns. Allahabad was relieved on 11th June.

Cawnpore had been bombarded by Nana Sahib, the most prominent leader of the rebels, from the 6th to the 24th June, but Sir Hugh Wheeler, the general in command, still held the town. He had only 240 soldiers to protect 870 European inhabitants. The troops never slackened in their efforts : for twenty-two days they worked night and day, rows of muskets by their side, responding with an unceasing fire to the attack of 4000 rebels. The odds, however, were too heavy for them. They were obliged to surrender, but

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not before Nana Sahib swore that boats and provisions should be supplied for their departure by the Ganges. On 28th June the wearied fugitives, many of them sick with fever and grievously wounded, were embarking on the boats, when the treacherous Nana ordered a murderous fire to be opened upon them. The survivors were dragged ashore and the men shot or hacked to pieces before the eyes of their wives and children, for whom was reserved a more dreadful fate.

On 16th July Sir Henry Havelock occupied Cawnpore and his men hastened to the Subada Kothee, where they expected to find the survivors. The gates of the building were thrown open, the soldiers poured in. Never did they forget that moment of horror! The paved courtyard was strewn with the wreckage of women's and children's garments, and tresses of hair dyed with blood. The adjoining hall bore terrible signs of carnage. They passed out to where the most tragic sight of all met their gaze, a



Sir Henry Havelock

well into which the dead and dying bodies of two hundred women and children had been thrown. Torn scraps of paper were picked up on which were written pitiful records of the last terrible hours: "Think of us"—"Avenge us"—"My child, my child." The torn scrap of the diary of one of the girl victims is more poignant in its simplicity than any graphic record of that scene of slaughter: "Mamma died July 12—Alice [her sister] died July 9—George [her brother] died June 27. Entered the barracks May 21—Cavalry left June 5. First shot fired June 6. Uncle Willy died

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June 18—Aunt Lily June 17—Left barracks June 27—
Made prisoners as soon as we were at the river.”
Another page, blood-stained so as to be almost unreadable, told the whole story: “We went into barracks on the 21st May, the 2nd cavalry broke out at 2 o’clock on the morning of the 5th of June. The next morning, while we were all sitting out in front of the barracks, a 24-pounder came flying along, and hit the entrenchment; and from that day the firing went on till the 25th June: then the enemy sent a treaty which the general agreed to; and on the 27th we all left the B. to go down to A in boats. When we got to the river the enemy began firing on us, killed all the gentlemen and some of the ladies; set fire to the boats; some were drowned; and we were taken prisoners, and taken to a house; put all in one room.”

Some of the women made a gallant stand against their assassins and General Wheeler’s daughter, it was reported, shot down five sepoy before she fell.

The stern soldiers came out of that charnel-house weeping bitterly and vowing a terrible vengeance. One officer, carrying a piece of a woman’s dress, swore that though he had spared many men in fight, he would never spare another. “I shall carry this with me in my hostlers, and whenever I am inclined for mercy, the sight of it, and the recollection of this house will be sufficient to incite me to revenge.” “I have looked upon death in every form,” one wrote home, “but I could not look upon that well a second time.”

There was nothing to be done in Cawnpore and Havelock and his army now marched to the relief of Lucknow, where the Europeans, under Sir Henry Lawrence, were besieged in the Residency, the name

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given to the enclosure which contained the houses of the English residents as well as the official quarters.

In May Sir Henry Lawrence had considered the position so threatening that he set to work to raise fortifications. The houses were transformed into strongholds and placed under commanders. He organized a sortie, but was obliged to retreat and fight his way back. He was one of the first victims of the siege, for, resting one day in his room, he was struck by a shell from the enemy's battery and mortally wounded. While he lay dying he gave full instructions to his second in command, Brigadier Inglis, for the defence of the garrison. A deep gloom fell on the survivors when, on 4th July, he died, for he was a man of heroic mould, and in him England lost one of her noblest sons. Day by day the enemy shelled the Residency, and one house after another was wrecked, and the wretched inhabitants crowded into the few places of refuge that remained. Day by day death thinned their ranks ; the survivors suffered terribly from flies and locusts, the food supply ran short, and cholera added to the toll of victims.

Letters had been sent to Havelock urging him to come to the rescue. But the days grew into weeks, and still no help came. Death rather than surrender, so they said to one another. At the outset the garrison hoped to hold out for fifteen or twenty days, and yet over eighty passed before Havelock reached the outskirts of the town.

General Sir James Outram had been sent to command the relieving column, but, with chivalrous generosity, he would not take the honour from his junior officer,



The Relief of Lucknow: Meeting of Generals Havelock, Outram, and Colin Campbell
J. L. H. S. C.

Photo. Mansell & Co

THE INDIAN MUTINY

and, tendering his military services to General Havelock, accompanied the expedition as a volunteer.

It was in the last week of September when the forces arrived at Lucknow, and the beleaguered men and women in the Residency knew that the fight for their lives was going on in the narrow streets of the city. At length Outram and Havelock fought their way to the Bailey Guard of the Residency. "Suddenly just at dark we heard a very close fire of musketry close by, and then a tremendous cheering. An instant after the sound of bagpipes, then soldiers running up the road—our compound and verandah filled with our deliverers, and all of us shaking hands frantically and exchanging fervent 'God Bless Yous!' with the gallant men and officers of the 78th Highlanders. The big rough-bearded soldiers were seizing the little children out of our arms, kissing them with tears rolling down their cheeks, and thanking God that they had come in time to save them from the fate of those at Cawnpore."



Sir James Outram

On the evening of the 25th September Havelock surrendered his command to Outram. He had lost heavily, and it was evident that though he had been enabled to reinforce the garrison there was as yet no escape. The disappointment, after such high hopes, was terrible, for with the increase of men there was no increase of supplies. . . .

On 10th June the English forces under Henry Barnard had laid siege to Delhi. For four months they had tried in vain to take the town. Then Sir John

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Lawrence sent Colonel John Nicholson, a commander of the greatest gallantry, who had seen much service in India, with 4000 men to try to capture the town, and in this instance the loyal Sikhs were employed. Nicholson was killed, but his energetic attack bore fruit, and on 20th September Delhi was once more in the hands of the English. Bahadur Shah was captured and banished, his sons and grandson were executed.

Meantime Sir Colin Campbell, with fresh bodies of troops, had been sent out to assume supreme command.



Sir Colin Campbell

With a force of 4000 men to oppose the 30,000 mutineers who fiercely contested his advance, he pushed up from Calcutta to Lucknow, fought his way through the streets and gardens of the city and relieved the sorely tried garrison on 17th November. The survivors of the long siege were ordered at once to Cawnpore. A week later the gallant Havelock, worn out by the hardships he had undergone, died. On the day that he was laid in his Indian grave it was announced that the Queen had conferred a baronetcy upon him. As a special mark of royal favour his widow was granted the title she would have borne had he lived, and his son succeeded to the honour.

With the capture of Delhi and the relief of Lucknow the end was in sight, but there was still rebellion to be put down in the Central Provinces, where the Ranee of Jhansi and Tantia Topi, Nana Sahib's nephew, still held out. Sir Hugh Rose, on 4th April, defeated Tantia,

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and on 19th June 1858 the Ranee, who led her army in person, was killed in battle. Nana Sahib was never captured.

On 1st May 1859 a thanksgiving service was held throughout England, for the Mutiny was at an end.

To Lord Canning, who had succeeded Dalhousie as Governor-General, was entrusted the difficult task of restoring order to the disorganized country. There were many who would have countenanced a fearful vengeance, but Canning was not one of them. "I will not govern in anger," he said, and he earned for himself the honourable title, though at first given in derision, of "Clemency Canning."

After the Mutiny the East India Company was abolished, and the entire administration of India assumed by the Crown. On 1st November 1858 Canning was gazetted as Viceroy. The Queen, in her proclamation to her Indian subjects, by her special desire assured them that they would be protected in the exercise of their religious observances. The native rulers loyal to the throne were to be supported in their authority, but were warned that if they did not fulfil their pledges they would be dethroned.

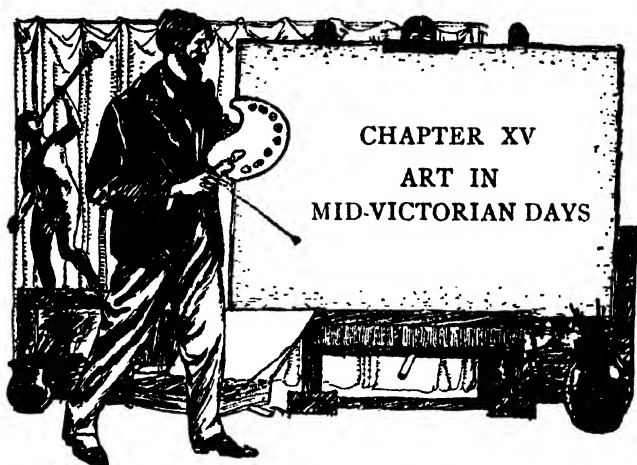
From this time forward the native officers in the Indian army held their commission from the Viceroy, and those commissions still ranked lower than those conferred on English officers by the sovereign. As the years went on honorary commissions were conferred on native rulers, such as the Maharajahs of Kashmir and Nepal, but these ranks are purely honorary, and confer no seniority in the field.

The high caste Indians in the army objected to

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being called " native " officers, and, in consequence, they are now known officially as Indian officers.

Lord Curzon during his viceroyalty inaugurated an Indian cadet corps for the sons of Indian rulers and nobles. The cadets, after two or three years' training at the Cadet College, would receive the King's commission, and rank in all respects the same as English officers. A few such commissions were given, but so far the British prejudice is too strong to allow of English officers serving under Indian officers and in this respect the army in India is still, as it was before the Mutiny, officered in the highest ranks by the governing class.

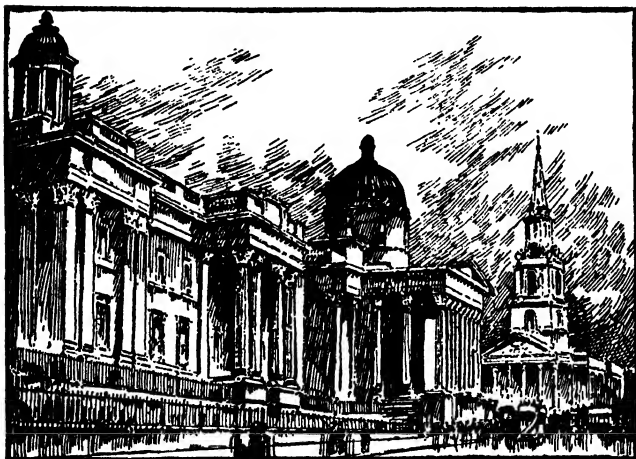


PEACE hath her victories, no less renowned than war," and it is a relief to turn to those in the realm of art.

When George IV came to the throne two of our greatest landscape painters, J. M. W. Turner (1775-1851) and John Constable (1776-1837) were in the full tide of their glorious careers. Turner, the son of a barber in Maiden Lane, began to draw in early boyhood, and earned a few shillings by selling pictures of noblemen's castles to his father's customers. By fourteen he was a student at the Academy schools, painting after the manner of the old Dutch masters. It was not till he visited Italy that he received his baptism as an artist, for there he learnt to express his own individuality, to see nature with his own eyes, not through the interpretation of others. His whole

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

being responded to the enchantment of Italy, the land of colour and light. Turner loved light, and his last words, "The sun is God," might have been his motto through life. He reproduced Nature in all her brilliancy, in all her gorgeous colour, and his canvases glowed with light. He did not, as painters had done before him, emphasize light by deepening the shadows ;



The National Gallery, Trafalgar Square

he painted it in and for itself. John Ruskin has said that he was the first to paint a tree or a mountain with fidelity to Nature, and that he was the first artist to set the sun in the heavens and to represent cloud forms truly. Our public collections are rich in examples of this great master's work. In the National Gallery we have his picture of Nelson's old ship, "The Fighting Téméraire tugged to her last Berth," and some of his

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most beautiful Venetian pictures ; in the Tate Gallery a whole room is devoted to his work.

Constable was a native of East Bergholt in Suffolk, and, like Rembrandt, his great predecessor in art, the son of a miller. Unlike Turner, he found his inspiration in his native land, and the peaceful English landscape is immortalized by his brush. He did not care for lake and mountain scenery, it was the simple countryside that he knew so well that touched his heart. His childish eyes first drank in the beauty of the Suffolk fields and lanes round his home ; the wide stretch of open country, the sky and the clouds found in him an interpreter. He loved Nature in her sadder moods of storm and windswept sky, and rarely painted sunshine. In the dewy freshness of early spring mornings he would walk abroad seeking subjects for his brush. " At every step I take," he wrote to a friend, " I am reminded of the words of Christ, ' I am the Resurrection and the Life.' " Constable lived for some time at Hampstead, and the Heath, then on the outskirts of the great city, was a favourite subject for his pictures. " The Corn Field " and " The Valley Farm " in the National Gallery are fine examples of his work.

Years have not dimmed the glory of Turner and Constable, but many artists who flourished in the mid-Victorian era have not had so happy a fate. William Etty, R.A. (1787-1849), was greatly admired in his lifetime. He was educated at the Academy schools and for a year worked under Sir Thomas Lawrence. He possessed untiring industry and the will to succeed in spite of many disappointments. Etty learnt something of the secret of colour from his stay in Venice, and in this was the beauty of his work. Venice is " the

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birthplace and cradle of colour," he said, " the idol of my professional life." For his picture of " Pandora crowned with the Seasons " he was made an Associate of the Royal Academy, and later on became an Academician. His aims were totally opposed to those of the group of artists known as the Pre-Raphaelites, who sprung into prominence at the close of his career, and one of them, Holman Hunt, wrote of him with biting contempt as painting " classic subjects with the taste of a Parisian paperhanger."

Before passing on to the work of these men we must mention a few celebrated artists typical of their era. Sir Edwin Landseer (1802-1873), the great animal painter, achieved enormous popularity. He came of a family of artists, and from the first his career was decided for him. By the time he was thirteen he won a medal for the painting of a mastiff; at fifteen he exhibited a dog's portrait at the Royal Academy; at twenty-four he was an Associate; at twenty-nine a full-fledged Academician. His work was typically English, his dogs were almost human, and his understanding of animals came from an innate sympathy with them. Ruskin pronounced a fair verdict on him when he said that he was " more of a natural historian than a painter; and the power of his works depends more on his knowledge and love of animals, on his understanding of their minds and ways, on his unerring notice and memory of their gestures and expressions, than on artistic and technical excellence." Among his best-known paintings are the grand Newfoundland dog, " A Distinguished Member of the Royal Humane Society," " Alexander and Diogenes," " High Life and Low Life," which with many other examples of his brush are in the Tate



Sir Edwin Landseer at work on his Lions for Trafalgar Square

J. G. Kent

ART IN MID-VICTORIAN DAYS

Gallery. He modelled the lions that lie at the base of the Nelson statue in Trafalgar Square.

Two painters, once popular, now almost forgotten, are William Hilton (1786-1839) and Benjamin Haydon (1786-1846). Both had the ambition to paint large historical subjects. Hilton is still remembered by his "Nature Blowing Bubbles for her Children" in the Tate Gallery, but Haydon's giant canvases—one or two of which had the honour of hanging in the National Gallery—have long ago been rolled up and put away. Not only was he unfortunate in his treatment, but even the colours he used, though brilliant at first, soon faded. Poor Haydon! as his popularity waned he suffered from extreme poverty and the pangs of failure, though, with pitiful foolishness, he believed that this was due, not to his incompetence, but to a conspiracy against him. "Stretch me no more on the rack of this rough world," he wrote in his diary, before he took his own life.

He started a school in rivalry to the Royal Academy, and among his pupils was Charles Eastlake (1793-1865), destined to be knighted and to become President of the Royal Academy. Eastlake was a fellow-townsmen of Haydon, and the son of a Plymouth solicitor. Scriptural subjects attracted him, and his rendering of them satisfied the taste of the time. "Christ Lamenting over Jerusalem" and "Christ Blessing Little Children" were two great favourites. He expressed the religious feeling with reverence and sympathy, but his pictures lack strength and originality.

We now come to a group of painters whose work was always sure of a good place on the walls of the Academy when Queen Victoria was young. Sir David Wilkie

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(1785-1841) was a popular *genre* painter—that is, a painter of small subject pictures. He had a sense of humour, and his renderings of homely Scotch interiors are delightful. He could draw before he could read, and paint before he could spell, like some of the clever modern children whose work is yearly exhibited by the Royal Drawing Society. He visited France, Germany and Italy, and when he returned to England he was fired by the ambition to paint big historical subjects. The best known of them, depicting John Knox preaching before the Lords of the Congregation, in the Tate Gallery, falls far short of any sensitive rendering of that dramatic scene.

Charles R. Leslie, R.A. (1794-1859), who went to old favourite authors for his inspiration and rendered with genial humour such subjects as Sancho Panza in the apartment of the Duchess, from *Don Quixote*, Widow Wadman's courtship of Uncle Toby from *Tristram Shandy*; Daniel Maclise, R.A. (1806-1870), whose well-known "Play Scene from Hamlet" was exhibited in 1842; E. M. Ward, R.A. (1816-1879), who loved eighteenth-century subjects, and painted Dr Johnson waiting for an audience with Lord Chesterfield, the crowds hurrying to invest their money in the South Sea Bubble; Augustus Egg, R.A. (1816-1863), inspired by Thackeray to depict "Beatrix Knighting Esmond," are all to be found in the National Gallery of British Art, and were all very popular in their generation.

W. P. Frith, R.A. (1819-1909), painted topical scenes: the jostling crowds on Derby Day, a railway station, and other familiar haunts of man. Crowds gathered round his pictures when first exhibited, eager to see themselves as another saw them. They are of great

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interest as illustrating the scenes and costumes of mid-Victorian days.

The Pre-Raphaelite brotherhood that held Etty in contempt were to have great influence on English art. Seven young men, nearly all destined for fame, banded themselves together, pledged to seek their inspiration in the primitive Italian painters whose work was done before the days of Raphael, when art was simple and sincere, and convention had not stepped in, and painters and writers looked out on the world with "wonder, reverence and awe." The members were John Everett Millais, Holman Hunt, F. G. Stephens, James Collinson, Thomas Woolner, Dante Gabriel Rossetti, and his brother, William Michael Rossetti. The young men published a magazine, *The Germ*, in which they preached their doctrine: "entire adherence to the simplicity of nature either in art or poetry." This was no less than a revolution in the ideals of their age, and naturally enough they met with opposition and criticism from artists of established reputation. Ruskin championed them, and Ford Madox Brown, who was some years their senior, sympathized with their aims though he did not join them. He had no wish to fetter his genius by any one school of thought.

Ford Madox Brown (1821-1893) began exhibiting at the Academy when he was twenty, and later studied for three years in Paris. He returned to England and exhibited many remarkable pictures, amongst them, "Chaucer at the Court of Edward III" reading from his own works, and "Christ Washing St Peter's Feet," a homely scene which was presented to the Tate Gallery by a number of his admirers after his death. Some of Madox Brown's most remarkable work is to

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be found in Manchester, where he portrayed the history of the city in twelve frescoes that adorn the Town Hall.

The first picture painted under the direct influence of the Pre-Raphael ideals was the "Eve of St Agnes," by Holman Hunt. The general effect was somewhat hard, for the Pre-Raphaelites painted with minute touches and disdained large sweeps of the brush.

Dante Gabriel Rossetti (1828-1882) was one of the most brilliant of the group. He was a student at the antique school in the Royal Academy with Millais and Holman Hunt. When he was one and twenty he painted the "Ecce Ancilla Domini," in which the Virgin, seated in a humble room, rises to receive the message of the angel Gabriel. Rossetti's poet sister, Christina, sat for the Virgin, and Thomas Woolner, the sculptor member of the brotherhood, for the archangel.

Sir John Everett Millais (1829-1896) holds high rank among artists. At an early age he entered the Academy schools, and soon after won both silver and gold medals at the Royal Academy. He painted some fine pictures when a member of the brotherhood; one, "The Carpenter's Shop," shows the boy Christ in Joseph's workshop. In using the tools of the trade he has met with a slight accident, and goes to the Virgin to have the wound bound. The picture is beautiful in its touching simplicity. Another fine example of his work at this period is the "Ophelia." She is represented singing her pitiful death song as she floats in the stream, surrounded by the lush green growth at the water's edge. Millais broke away from the brotherhood, and his subsequent career takes him out of mid-Victorian days.

Before leaving the Pre-Raphaelite brotherhood we

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must mention Sir Edward Burne-Jones (1833-1898), for though he was not a member, he was greatly influenced by Rossetti. He too was a poet-painter, and he went to old-world romance for the subjects for his brush, showing us "King Cophetua and the Beggar Maid" (now in the Tate Gallery), and telling us "The Legend of the Briar Rose."



CHAPTER XVI
A PRINCE IN
LEADING STRINGS

THE Queen and Prince Consort played prominent parts in public life, and did not neglect to provide Court festivities for the aristocracy. At one of the balls at Buckingham Palace the guests invited had to appear in costumes of the reign of George II. For weeks fashionable London thought of nothing else. Men and women long past their dancing days spent their spare time in practising the minuet. The entertainment was a great success.

The domestic life of the Queen and the Prince was dignified. They were both animated by a strong sense of duty, and their main preoccupation was the upbringing of their children. The education of the future heir to the throne was planned in the most minute detail,

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for the Prince Consort, with his nation's thoroughness, left nothing to chance. The children learnt German in the nursery, and it came to them as easily as their native tongue. The royal family conversed with one another in German, and the consequence was that the Prince of Wales throughout his life spoke English with a slightly foreign accent. He was taught French at an early age and learnt that language easily, and here his general aptitude for study seems to have come to an end.

The Princess Royal was keenly alert and intelligent, and the tutors and governesses to the Queen's children noticed how much quicker she was in grasping a point than her brother. The boys and girls—for brothers and sisters were born in due course—shared their home life at Buckingham Palace and Windsor, and spent delightful holidays at Osborne, the seaside home in the Isle of Wight, built by the Queen. To the astonishment of the nation, she had managed her income so well that she paid for this mansion out of her own savings. The little princesses had a house of their own in the grounds, where they learnt the mysteries of cookery, housewifery and dairy work, and their brothers played soldiers in the garden, fired miniature cannon, and mimicked the great game of kings.

The Queen's favourite home was Balmoral, in the Highlands. Here she wrote a journal which, when it was afterwards published, revealed her to her people in the home-loving simplicity of her nature. She made domesticity fashionable. "We arrived at Balmoral at a quarter to three; it is a pretty little castle in the old Scottish style. There is a picturesque town and garden in front, with a high wooded hill at the back;

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there is a wood down to the Dee and the hills rise all around. . . . All seemed to breathe freedom and peace."

Balmoral was then a simple country house and the present castle was built some years later. Greville visited the royal family there in 1849, and wrote: "They live without any state whatever; they live not merely like private gentlefolks, but like very small gentlefolks, small house, small rooms, small establishment. There are no soldiers, and the whole guard of the sovereign and the royal family is a single policeman. . . . The Prince shoots every morning, returns to luncheon, and then they walk and drive. The Queen is running in and out of the house all day long, and often goes about alone, walks into the cottages and sits down and chats with the old women. . . . In the evening we withdrew to the only room there is beside the dining-room, which serves for billiards, library, (hardly any books in it,) and drawing-room. The Queen and Prince and her ladies soon went back to the dining-room, where they had a Highland dancing master who gave them lessons in reels."

The Prince of Wales was at that time a slight, fair boy with gentle manners, naturally docile, and easily overawed by the strict discipline of his father, who, in his extreme conscientiousness, undoubtedly made some mistakes in his son's upbringing. The Prince of Wales had no boys of his own age to play with, for the parents feared his intimacy with lads who might not have been so carefully nurtured. Severe criticism was passed on this enforced isolation, and in order to remedy it a few boys of good social position and exceptional behaviour were chosen to come and play with him at Buckingham Palace, and when the Court was at Windsor selected

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Eton boys were honoured with a similar invitation. Prince Albert in his anxiety would watch the lads together, and in his presence romps and laughter were subdued. The young prince was an amiable and friendly boy, and he managed to make friends with his young companions. But it was, after all, a poor substitute for the comradeship of school life. The Prince could take part in no school sports; he never learnt to play cricket, and the fashionable croquet, which he played well, was not a boy's game. He was a good horseman and a good shot. He was taken to see plays and hear fine music, and visits to theatres and operas were among his greatest pleasures.

His lessons were not made interesting to him; history was merely a record of names and dates, and even the romances of Sir Walter Scott were forbidden. He kept a diary, but he showed no aptitude for literary expression. He was to learn his trade as ruler not from books but men, to learn geography not from poring over atlases but from world-wide travel. When he was fourteen he was taken by his parents on a visit to Napoleon III and the Empress Eugenie. This was his first journey abroad, and France remained ever dear to him. The gaiety, the brightness, the charm and courtesy of her people delighted him.

The Prince of Wales submitted with docility to all attempts to turn him into a studious man. He attended Faraday's lectures at the Royal Institution; he listened to William Ellis on Political Economy. Nothing came of it, and Prince Albert had not the foresight to see that nothing was to come. He could not mould his boy as he wished; the son did not fulfil the Queen's desire that he should resemble his father in every respect.

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

Perhaps it was as well, for the bulk of Englishmen would have looked askance at a bookish king.

The Queen was very strict with her son over monetary matters. She had been taught as a child the lesson of cutting her coat according to her cloth, and she compelled her boy to keep within his allowance. At fifteen he was allowed to buy his own ties and hats, but had to account for every penny to his mother ; at seventeen, with the most serious injunctions as to simplicity and sobriety of taste, he was allowed to choose his own clothes. At this age the Queen wrote him a letter telling him that he was now free from his parents' control. She confessed that he might consider his training to have been a severe one, but she was anxious to guard him from flatterers. The Prince was so touched by this letter that he burst into tears.

The Prince Consort communicated with his son in the same formal way, and wrote him memoranda as to his conduct. He wished him above all things to be a gentleman, one " who does not indulge in careless, self-indulgent, lounging ways, such as lolling in arm chairs or on sofas, slouching in his gait or placing himself in unbecoming attitudes with his hands in his pockets." He was also to show his birthmark in true nobleness of character, unselfishness, courtesy, kindness and consideration.

Though the Prince of Wales was subject to more supervision than less exalted personages, still the attitude of his parents toward him was typical of the time. Queen Victoria was only leading the fashion in not consulting her children's wishes. Parents were on a pedestal in those days ; they issued their commands and the young folk were expected to obey without



The Secret of England's Greatness
1844

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questioning, and pay them great deference, rising in their presence, and not even approaching the fire without permission. Comradeship, understanding and friendship between parents and children, were almost undreamt of.

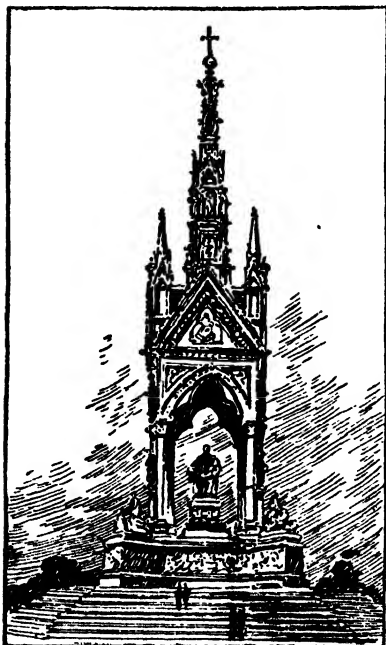
After all, the Prince of Wales's freedom from control was merely nominal, for he had to continue to walk in the appointed path of progress. Many avenues of study—too many—opened before the youth, and his whole education must have been a weariness to the flesh. Thus when he went to Edinburgh University and studied science, the Prince Consort wrote to Baron Stockmar: "Dr Lyon Playfair is giving him lectures on chemistry in relation to manufactures, and at the close of each special course he visits the appropriate manufactory with him, so as to explain its practical application." Roman history, Italian, German, French, law and history were all on the list. In due course he went to Oxford, and, after he had completed a course of study there, was sent to Cambridge. In both cases he did not live in the university, but houses were rented for him, and he only shared in a partial degree the life of the undergraduates.

It was arranged that when the Prince of Wales was eighteen he should visit Canada as a tribute to the loyalty of the Dominion, at the time of the Crimean War. He was to open the great railway bridge that spanned the St Lawrence at Montreal and lay the foundation-stone of the Parliament buildings at Ottawa. He received an enthusiastic welcome in all parts of the Dominion, and passed on, travelling under the name of "Lord Renfrew," into the United States. But his pseudonym was unavailing, and he was royally

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entertained as heir to the English throne. Cities were illuminated, levies and receptions were held, and he won all American hearts by planting a chestnut-tree on Washington's grave.

The first break in the royal family circle came with the marriage of the Princess Royal to the Crown Prince of Germany. She was a girl of strong character,



The Albert Memorial

and her English sympathies were not appreciated in her husband's country. The Queen went to visit her after her marriage, and the daughter sought her mother's wise counsel in the difficulties of her situation. Henceforth her career was to be in the Fatherland, and, so far as it bears on English history, can be told in a few words. When she was middle-aged the Crown Prince ascended the throne of Germany. An illness from which

he had suffered for some time cut short his reign after a few months, and he was succeeded by his son,

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the present Emperor. The Dowager Empress, a masterful woman, was not always on good terms with her masterful son.

The Queen lost her mother in 1861, and at the end of the same year she suffered a still more tragic bereavement. The Prince Consort had never been a strong man, and he was now attacked by what was to prove a fatal illness. On 28th November, though feeling far from well, he inspected the volunteers ; a fortnight later he was dead. He was laid to rest at Frogmore, where the Queen built a magnificent mausoleum. Her one consolation in the early days of her widowhood was in erecting monuments to him, among them the Albert Memorial in Hyde Park. She reigned on in lonely splendour, a stricken woman, bearing her part in the business of State as was her duty, but shutting herself off completely from the social life of her time.

After his father's death the Prince of Wales visited the East with Dean Stanley. He was now of age, and the public began wondering who would be the mate of the heir to the throne. It was essential that the lady of his choice should belong to the Protestant faith, and several German princesses were mentioned who fulfilled this condition, but they were not otherwise suitable, lacking the beauty or the charm likely to attract him. It was suggested to the Queen that Alexandra, the daughter of the King of Denmark, was a beautiful girl, with every grace of mind and person. A meeting took place between the Prince of Wales and the Princess Alexandra, and shortly afterward, to the general satisfaction, the betrothal was announced.

It was hoped that the marriage would lighten the gloom of the Court, and that the Prince and Princess

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of Wales would take the Queen's place as leaders of society. Parliament voted the Prince £40,000 a year, and £10,000 to the Princess. He also inherited the revenues of the Duchy of Cornwall. The Queen had used what was necessary for her son's maintenance, but a very substantial balance was yearly invested, and when he came of age his annual private income was over £50,000. Thus the young couple started house-keeping with something like £100,000 a year. Marlborough House was set in order for the bride and the



Marlborough House—one of the Royal Residences

estate of Sandringham in Norfolk was purchased, where in 1869-1871 he built the present Sandringham House.

The marriage was celebrated at St George's Chapel, Windsor, on 10th March 1863. Queen Victoria took no part in the ceremony, though, attired in deep black, relieved only by the brilliant blue ribbon of the Order of the Garter, she watched it from the royal closet. The Prince wore the uniform of a British General and

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the purple velvet mantle of a Knight of the Garter. Princess Alexandra looked a charming bride in her dress of shimmering white satin, veiled with Honiton lace, and adorned with orange blossoms.

Within a year of the marriage their first son, Edward (afterwards Duke of Clarence) was born, and eighteen months later (3rd June 1865) a second son, George. Thus the succession to the throne in the direct line was doubly secure.

On 5th February 1863 the Prince of Wales took his oath as a peer of the realm, and his seat on the "cross benches" of the House of Lords, as a sign that he belonged to neither political party. Though he had now attained to full manhood, the Queen continued to keep him in leading strings, and to allow him no responsibility in the public affairs of the country. It was not till he was a middle-aged man that he was allowed to have the access to foreign dispatches that all Cabinet ministers enjoy. He felt this deprivation keenly, but he was obliged to acquiesce in the Queen's decision. There was never any serious breach between them, though on occasions the Prince showed his irritation; he was of too easy a temper to quarrel with his mother.

Ten years after the death of the Prince Consort the Prince of Wales was stricken with typhoid fever. For days his life was despaired of, and Queen Victoria went to Sandringham to be near him. When he had fully recovered, he attended a service of National Thanksgiving in St Paul's Cathedral (27th February 1872), accompanied by the Queen and the Princess of Wales. Thirteen thousand people were present, and he received an enormous ovation from the crowds that lined the streets on the journey to and from the city.



ENGLAND possesses a noble literature, and during the nineteenth century it was enriched by the work of many great writers. Victoria had the good fortune, like her grand predecessor, Elizabeth, to give her name to an era in letters.

When she came to the throne Robert Southey was Poet Laureate, but his work belongs rather to an earlier time. He is not one of the greatest masters of his craft, as was his successor in the post, William Wordsworth (1770-1850). Wordsworth was born and bred in Cumberland, and the mountains and valleys of his

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early home impressed his childish eyes and revealed their secret to him. He was nature's poet. After school days were over he was sent to Cambridge, where he took his degree, after which he spent some time both in London and on the Continent, with no definite aim as to his career. It was the period of the French Revolution, and till the crimes of the Republicans distracted his mind, all his sympathies were with the oppressed people. When he was three and twenty he brought out a volume of verse which met with no success. He was content to live in a very modest way, and set up housekeeping with his sister Dorothea in Somersetshire, removing later to the Lake district, where Southey, and Coleridge, whose *Ancient Mariner* is one of the masterpieces of our literature, were his neighbours. Wordsworth's longest poem, *The Excursion*, abounds in beautiful descriptions of scenery, and gives his philosophy of life. His poems are eloquent of his love for the simple sights and sounds of the countryside, and are peopled by the rural folk who were his neighbours—Goody Blake, who stole sticks to light her fire; poor Susan, doomed to exile in the town, transported by the song of a thrush to the glades and mountains of Westmoreland. Wordsworth enhanced our literature by noble sonnets and exquisite poems. In perhaps the most beautiful of all, *Intimations of Immortality from Recollections of Early Childhood*, he tells us that :

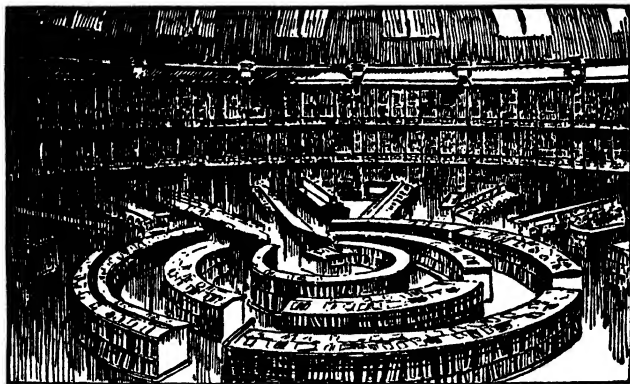
“ To me the meanest flower that blows can give
Thoughts that do often lie too deep for tears,”

and this was the secret of his muse.

Wordsworth's best work was done before the

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Victorian era, but Alfred Tennyson (1809-1892) in his work is the embodiment of the highest ideals of his time. A clergyman's son, born at Somersby in Lincolnshire, his childhood was spent in the happy home atmosphere of the cultivated middle classes, and his early education was at home. As a boy he read a great deal, and his first attempts at verse were written in childhood. At eighteen, he and his elder brother,



British Museum—Reading Room

Frederick, published *Poems by Two Brothers*, a volume of little promise, and chiefly remarkable for the fact that the youths made twenty pounds by the venture. He entered Trinity College, Cambridge, and in his undergraduate days became closely drawn to Arthur Hallam, the son of the historian of the Middle Ages. Tennyson continued to write, but it was not till the publication of a volume of poems in 1833 that it was recognized that a new star had risen in the firmament of poetry.

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Among the gems in this volume is *A Dream of Fair Women*, in which a procession of "the far renowned brides of ancient song," noble, regal, suffering women, pass before the poet, and he describes them with inspired imagination.

Arthur Hallam died that same year, and such was Tennyson's grief for his friend that life seemed void of all incentive. After a period of silence, however, the natural buoyancy of youth reasserted its power and he gave expression to his more healthy emotions in *In Memoriam*, a poem which has brought comfort to thousands of stricken souls who could not thus give their sorrow words. The poem expresses the moods of alternate hope and despair, revolt and resignation, that possess the mourner before he is able once more to face life bereft of one he loved. At last he comes to believe that somehow good must come out of sorrow; that there is a divine order in the universe; and

"That God for ever lives and loves,
One God, one law, one element
And one far off divine event,
To which the whole creation moves."

Tennyson did not publish this poem till seventeen years after Hallam's death, and in the interval other volumes appeared, each eagerly welcomed by his ever-increasing band of readers. On Wordsworth's death he was made Poet Laureate, and his subsequent first poem dealing with a public event was the *Ode on the Death of the Duke of Wellington*, who died in September 1852. No warrior soul could ask a finer tribute than these impassioned lines. Among Tennyson's best known works are *Maud*, containing some of the most

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exquisite love songs in our language ; *The Princess*, dealing with the aspirations of women, and *Idylls of the King*. In the last named, which he dedicated to the memory of the Prince Consort, he takes us back to the days of chivalry, and deals with the legends of King Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table. All are pledged to redress human wrongs, to lead sweet, pure lives, worshipping by noble deeds the high-souled maidens of their choice. Here we meet Lancelot and Sir Galahad, Elaine and Queen Guinevere. The flag of honour is to be dragged in the dust, the high ideals are to prove too lofty for many of the band. Arthur himself remains incorruptible, the hero-king, in whom Tennyson sees the similitude of Christ himself. With the passing of Arthur the Round Table, "which was an image of the mighty world," is dissolved.

Tennyson wrote several plays, but none of them were really successful on the stage ; he continued working to the end of his long days, and his hand did not lose its cunning. On his eighty-first birthday he wrote the exquisite lines of *Crossing the Bar*, and he desired that this poem should be printed last in all complete editions of his works. The last volume from his pen, *The Death of Ænone*, was on the eve of publication at the time of his death. The Queen was amongst those who greatly admired his work ; she honoured him with her friendship, and made him a baron. In his domestic life he was as fortunate as in his public career, and his marriage was a happy one. He loved the country, and at Aldworth and Freshwater lived much in retirement. Death came to him at Aldworth, and he was buried in Westminster Abbey.

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"He hath returned to regions whence he came.
Him doth the spirit divine
Of universal loveliness reclaim
All nature is his shrine."

Tennyson's great contemporary, Robert Browning (1812-1889), was more limited in his appeal. His poetry was considered difficult, his meaning obscure. He was a born lover of the arts, and his parents—his father was in the Bank of England—did all they could to foster his literary tastes. When he left University College he was encouraged to follow the bent of his nature. "I wish," he said to his father, "to see life in the best sense and cultivate the powers of my mind." "In short, Robert," his sire replied, "your design is to be a poet." And so it was decided. Browning travelled on the Continent, and at twenty-one published his first volume, *Pauline*, declared by one of the critics to be "a piece of sheer bewilderment." No better estimate awaited his next venture, *Paracelsus*, nor *Sordello*, which told of the life of a minstrel in the Middle Ages. Browning's readers at this time were comparatively few, but with *Bells and Pomegranates* he increased their number and began to take his place as a rising genius in intellectual circles. The opening poem, *Pippa Passes*, is simple in its appeal, and tells of a little workgirl who is employed in winding silk in an Italian mill—"someone walking alone through life, apparently too obscure to leave a trace of her passage, yet exercising a lasting though unconscious influence at every step of it." Browning studied character in all its varied aspects. He is the poet of the human being, and *Men and Women* is the title aptly chosen for his most widely read volume. It contains verse strong and helpful, and a ring of

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optimism sounds through it all. The author believes in the fulness of life.

“Grow old along with me,
The best is yet to be,
The last of life, for which the first was made :
Our times are in His hand
Who saith ‘A whole I planned,
Youth shows but half ; trust God ; see all nor be afraid !”

In *The Ring and the Book* Browning uses a dramatic form peculiarly his own, and in a series of conversations tells us of a husband's jealousy of his young wife. The epilogue to his last volume, *Asolando*, sounds once more the trumpet call of hope, and might fittingly be his epitaph in Westminster Abbey :

“One who never turned his back but marched breast forward,
Never doubted clouds would break,
Never dreamed, though right were worsted, wrong would triumph.
Held we fall to rise, are baffled to fight better,
Sleep to wake.”

Robert Browning married Elizabeth Barrett, the poetess (1806-1861), in 1846, and their union is one of the romances of literature.

As they could not overcome the objection of Miss Barrett's father to their union, one day they took “French leave” in the old romantic fashion. It is good to record that though a runaway match it proved to be “a marriage made in heaven.”

Mrs Browning does not rank as high as her husband, yet she produced work which will live, of fine quality and enduring charm. She too had been fortunate in her upbringing, and was given the fullest opportunities to cultivate her gifts. At eight she could read Homer



Browning



Carlyle



Coleridge



Matthew Arnold



Ruskin



Wordsworth



Rossetti



Morris



Swinburne

Great Writers of the Period

Photo, Emery Walker, Ltd.

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in the original ; at twelve she wrote an epic poem, which her proud father had printed. An accident in her early girlhood condemned her to lead the life of an invalid, writing and publishing her poems, it is true, but shut out from the larger life of the world. "My story amounts to the knife grinder's," she said, "with nothing at all for a catastrophe. A bird in a cage would have as good a story ; most of my events and nearly all my intense pleasures have passed in my thoughts." Her poetry sprang from a heart of gold ; the lines on Cowper's grave reveal that her faith in God, in spite of all, was as deeply rooted as her husband's.

After her marriage Mrs Browning reached the high-water mark of her art with the exquisite *Sonnets from the Portuguese*, dedicated to her husband, the curious title of which was derived from her husband's playful reference to her, because of her poem, *Caterina to Camoens*, as "his little Portuguese." Her story in verse, *Aurora Leigh*, ranks first, however, with some of her admirers. Italy was the home of the wedded poets, and here, till her death sundered the beautiful tie that bound them, they lived and worked.

William Morris (1834-1896) was a man of many gifts, and his work as a poet ranks high. After he had left Oxford, he sought to find the expression of his genius in architecture. With Philip Webb and Norman Shaw he was instrumental in changing the taste of his time, and the good domestic architecture of to-day owes an incalculable debt to these three men. The dignified and beautiful building of the Georgian era gave place, in mid-Victorian days, to a style that was ugly and meaningless, the houses seeming to be built to show as much plate glass—it had been recently invented—as possible.

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The interiors, though typical of solid British comfort, were as ugly as the exteriors. Heavy mahogany sideboards had replaced the delicate Sheraton and Chippendale of an earlier day ; meaningless wall-papers and dull, heavy fabrics were the rule in the homes of the average middle-class citizens.

William Morris believed with all his heart in beauty, and in the application of beauty to common objects of everyday use. With Rossetti and Burne-Jones, he started a business for manufacturing wall-papers and house furnishings, and later on took up the manufacture of tapestry. The public were gradually educated to see the beauty of Morris's designs, and his wall-papers and decorations became the fashion. He turned his attention next to printing, and, seeking inspiration in the work of Caxton and other early masters of the craft, produced from the Kelmscott Press at Hammersmith some of the most beautifully printed books of the century. His wonderful versatility found expression also in the writing of beautiful verse. He went back to the old-world romances for his themes, and to Chaucer for his model. His poetical fame was won by *The Life and Death of Jason*, published in 1867, and this was followed by a series of romantic poetical tales, gathered together under the title of *The Earthly Paradise*, a work of great beauty.

The age was rich in poets, and with William Morris is associated the name of his friend, the poet-painter, Dante Gabriel Rossetti (1828-1882). He was the son of an Italian patriot who lived in exile in England, and was three-quarters Italian and only one-quarter English by birth. His first published work, *The Blessed Damozel*, came out in *The Germ*. It tells of a woman's yearnings in heaven for her lover whom she has

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left on earth. In *Dante and his Circle* Rossetti made the early Italian poets known to English readers. In 1860 Rossetti married Miss Sidall, and she died tragically two years later. In the agony of his grief he buried a manuscript volume of his verse with her in the grave. Some years after his friends who had been privileged to read the poems persuaded him to unearth them, and they were duly published. The volume contained, among other beautiful work, many of the sonnets afterwards entitled *The House of Life*. "All passion," wrote Swinburne, "and regret and strenuous hopes and fiery contemplation, all beauty and glory of thought and vision, are built into this golden house where the light which reigns is love."

Rossetti's sister Christina (1830-1894) holds a high rank among poets, though her work is in strong contrast to her brother's. He, with rich luxuriance of phrase, dwelt on earthly joys; she, with exquisite simplicity, on death and eternity. Her best known work is *Goblin Market*. Hers was a deeply religious spirit, and it was said that her poems in the triumph of her faith were "the national hymns of heaven."

Algernon Charles Swinburne's (1837-1909) genius found its expression in poetry and prose. As a poet he was one of the masters, the only living bard worthy to succeed Tennyson as Laureate at his death. We owe to him a revelation beyond all previous knowledge of the rich beauty of our language. Words were to him what the notes of an instrument are to a musician; his ear was attuned to the finest harmonies, the strange haunting sweetness of his word-music was unsurpassed. As Wordsworth studied the secrets of meadow, lake and mountain, Swinburne studied the sea—"the great

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sweet mother—mother and lover of men the sea !”—and in verse of imperishable beauty he told the secrets that she revealed. When *Atalanta in Calydon* was published (1864) the reading public knew that a new singer of immortal songs had come into the world. From this time onward volume after volume came from his pen. Sometimes he shocked his readers and they turned from him, but there was so much that compelled admiration that the poems that gave offence were forgotten. In one volume he writes of *The Garden of Proserpine*—Proserpine, wife of Pluto and queen of the lower world :

“ No growth of moor or coppice,
No heather flower or vine,
But bloomless buds of poppies,
Green grapes of Proserpine :
Pale beds of blowing rushes,
Where no leaf blooms or blushes,
Save this whereout she crushes
For dead men deadly wine.”

Alike remote from Browning's optimism and Tennyson's acceptance of Christianity as the ultimate solution of the problems of life and death, is Matthew Arnold's message to his age. He never attained to Tennyson's "larger hope" in immortality. In some of the saddest lines in our language, those entitled *Dover Beach*, he tells us that

“ The Sea of Faith
Was once, too, at the full, and round earth's shore
Lay like the folds of a bright girdle furl'd !
But now I only hear
Its melancholy, long, withdrawing roar,
Retreating to the breath
Of the night-wind, down the vast edges drear
And naked shingles of the world.

OUR GOODLY HERITAGE

The world which seems
To lie before us like a land of dreams,
So various, so beautiful, so new,
Hath really neither joy, nor love, nor light,
Nor certitude, nor peace nor help for pain."

And yet in other moods his message is not one of despair—he would have us glory in the sunshine, in the beauty of spring, in friendship and love. We should fearlessly face the facts of existence and "pitch this life high."

Arnold (1822-1888) was the son of the great headmaster of Rugby, and after leaving Rugby and Oxford he was appointed inspector of schools. For twenty years he wrote poetry and then for twenty years more he devoted himself wholly to prose, and in both mediums he is a master. He was the greatest critic of his time, and he held that not only instinct but knowledge was necessary for such literary work. He used his pen unsparingly to criticize the intellectual shortcomings of his countrymen, and his verdict on the English people was that "they are a people of all the most inaccessible to ideas and the most impatient of them. . . . The born lover of ideas, the born hater of commonplaces, must feel in this country that the sky over his head is of brass and iron." He divided English society into barbarians, Philistines and the populace; he might have added a fourth section for the small residue of "superior persons" to which he belonged. In spite of this attitude he did a good, though unpopular, service to his generation. In *Essays in Criticism* and in *Culture and Anarchy* he preached the doctrine, always associated with his name, of "sweetness and light" as essentials to literature and life.

In *Thyrsis* Arnold paid a noble tribute to his friend,

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the poet, Arthur Hugh Clough (1819-1861), who had been his fellow-pupil at Rugby. Clough's longest poem is marred by its cumbrous title of *The Bothie of Tober-na-Vuolich*, but it should have many readers. It tells with freshness and simplicity the love story of a young man and a Highland girl. Many of his shorter poems, inspired by a lofty conception of life, are of great beauty, and *Say not the Struggle naught availeth* is known to all lovers of stimulating verse.

Among writers who have enriched our literature both in prose and verse stands Walter Savage Landor (1775-1864), who in his span of life links the Georgian and Victorian days. His admirers were fit but few. "Give me ten accomplished men for readers and I am content," he once wrote, and among the number of such were Southey and Swinburne. Swinburne, as a young man, "the youngest to the oldest singer that England bore," visited Landor, and spoke of him as

"In holiest age, our mightiest mind,
Father and friend."

If as a poet he failed to attract, as a prose writer he has many readers—especially of his volume *Imaginary Conversations*.

We must pass from the poets to the great prose writers of the middle nineteenth century. Among the forces that helped to mould that century, Thomas Carlyle (1795-1881) is in the first rank. He was born at Ecclefechan in Annandale, the son of peasant parents, and throughout his life he spoke in the most glowing terms of the sterling qualities of his father, a stonemason. Scotland stands for education, and a village lad there may be said to carry a cap and gown in his satchel.

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Carlyle was sent to Annan Grammar School, and thence to Edinburgh University—walking the whole distance—a hundred miles, for he was too poor to afford the coach. His parents intended him for the ministry, but after much thought and reading he became convinced that he was utterly unsuited for that career. At a time of mental crisis he found a guide in the great German poet, Goethe, who taught him that he could accept all that the latest scientific research revealed, and yet retain faith in God. German literature was the lodestar of his literary life.

In 1826 he married Jane Baillie Welsh, a well-educated, well-connected girl of literary tastes, who was destined to fill, through her published letters, a niche in the temple of literature. Alas! they were not suitably mated; the young bride languished in the dreary home at Craigenputtock, which Carlyle thus describes in a letter to Goethe: "the loneliest nook in Britain, an oasis in a wilderness of heath and rock, among the granite hills and the black morasses which stretch westward through Galloway almost to the Irish Sea." Here he wrote *Sartor Resartus*, which on coming out "excited the most unqualified disapprobation."

In 1834 the Carlyles settled in London at Cheyne Walk, Chelsea, and here Carlyle produced *The French Revolution*. When the manuscript of the first volume was finished he sent it, uncopied, to John Stuart Mill, and whilst in Mill's possession it was burnt through the carelessness of a maid, the work of five months being thus destroyed. Carlyle had to begin once more, and his masterpiece was finished in January 1837. He knew its worth. "You have not had," he said to his wife, "for a hundred years any book that comes more

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direct and flamingly from the heart of a living man." *The French Revolution* met with a splendid reception and Carlyle became the lion—a shaggy, unmannerly lion too—of London society. *Cromwell's Letters and Speeches, Heroes and Hero-Worship, Past and Present*, were so many hammer-blows struck at the placid self-satisfaction of an age which needed a fresh ideal. His influence on his age was enormous. His style was original; he "strained for emphasis" and he gripped his readers. He stood for a hatred of shams; he would strip a subject bare and come to the living body underneath. "Conventionality was for him," says Mr Leslie Stephen, "the deadly sin. In truth the prophet who reveals and the hero who acts could be his only guides."

John Ruskin (1819-1900) was of a different order of genius, but, as was true of Carlyle, the thought of the time was largely moulded by the works of his pen. We know more of his upbringing than we do of that of most of our great men, for he himself, in *Præterita*, has told the story of his childhood. To modern ears the strictness of his parents makes hard reading, but Ruskin looked back on those childish years not without gratitude. He had no toys, but that, he considered, taught him to find pleasure and observe things for himself. His literary style was founded on the Bible, the beautiful phraseology of which became familiar to him as soon as he could talk, and the Bible was read through with his mother from the first chapter to the last again and again.

At eighteen he went to Oxford, where he gained the Newdigate prize for English poetry and later on took his degree. In 1843 he published the first volume of



The Railway Station
W. P. P. P. W. A.

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Modern Painters, a book which was to be a bombshell in the ranks of art criticism. It was a treatise on the art of landscape painting and in it Ruskin constituted himself the champion of J. M. W. Turner. Ruskin delighted in beauty, and in all his art works he would have us understand the close association of the beautiful with the useful. In *The Seven Lamps of Architecture* he tells us of the spirit that animated the great builders of the magnificent cathedrals: how the Lamp of Sacrifice was lit by the building being dedicated to God, the Lamp of Truth by honesty in the materials used—no imitation wood or marble, but always the real thing. The Lamp of Beauty, the Lamp of Power, the Lamp of Life, the Lamp of Memory and the Lamp of Obedience, all were required for the construction of a noble building. His next book, *The Stones of Venice*, is still concerned with the laws of architecture. The great buildings of old taught him all he cared to know. Their fine proportions and magnificent façades were carefully studied by him. He deplored all that was modern in Venice: the utilitarian bridges that spanned the Grand Canal, and all the signs of a busy commercial seaport. Ruskin was capable of deep prejudices and was frequently impatient of the developments necessitated by modern conditions of society.

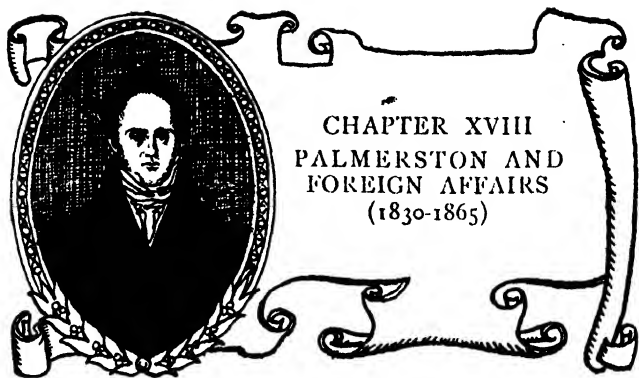
Besides being an art critic, Ruskin was a political economist. In *Fors Clavigera*, *Sesame and Lilies*, *Unto this Last*, *The Crown of Wild Olive*, and other works, he enunciated, with certain prejudices and a certain aloofness, advanced socialistic doctrine, much of which, however, has become the commonplace of our day: to every child a trade, Government manufacturing and shops, work for all, old age provided for.

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His aims were always noble. The foundation of his doctrine was that men should love one another, and his political faith was rooted in the belief that the state is most prosperous which has the largest proportion of happy and contented citizens. Ruskin had to suffer many bitter disappointments, one of which was the complete failure of a plan which he organized and financed to found a settlement of men and women who should live and work according to his economic theories. His father had left him a large fortune, all of which was spent long before his death, mainly in helping others or advancing his theories. Fortunately the income from his books was ample for his needs.

His influence in the world of art will live, though much of his criticism has in its turn been fiercely criticized. It will live because of the nobility and purity of his literary style, and the power that he had to make men think, to make them bring "to the study of particular works or particular artists the attraction of joy, of fervour of life."

Carlyle's friend, John Stuart Mill (1806-1873), was a philosopher and political economist, and he also, in his degree, helped to lead the thought of his day and beyond. His most read books to-day are his fine *Essay on Liberty*, in which he advocates the rights of the individual as against society, his *Considerations on Representative Government*, and his *System of Logic*.



LORD PALMERSTON (1784-1865) played a prominent part in directing our foreign policy during the mid-nineteenth century. He first entered Parliament in 1807, and in 1830 he became Foreign Secretary in the Whig ministry, and continued throughout his life to belong to that party. From 1835 to 1841 he was Foreign Secretary under Lord Melbourne, and won popular approval for the way in which he upheld the claims of British subjects abroad, though the great objection to his championship was that he was apt to bring the country to the verge of war. He did not hesitate to interfere in the affairs of Europe when he deemed that the interests of Britain demanded it, and he was not overcareful of the feelings of the people in the countries favoured by the counsel and advice which he was ready to tender.

In 1840 a Canadian, named M'Leod, on a visit to New York State, openly boasted of the share he had taken in the burning of a piratical little American

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vessel, the *Caroline*, which was destroyed in American waters and members of the crew killed when it was employed in taking provisions to the rebels during the Canadian rising. M'Leod was arrested in New York State and informed that he would be brought to trial for murder. Palmerston at once interfered, declaring that the Canadian's action was one for which no British subject could be made "personally and individually responsible," and he informed the American Government that M'Leod's execution would mean war with England. Daniel Webster, the American Secretary of State, replied that he had no power to prevent the trial, but he saw to it that M'Leod was well defended, and the issue was that he was duly acquitted of the charge.

Some years later Palmerston provoked Europe by his action in what was known as the Don Pacifico affair. Don Pacifico, a Portuguese Jew, born in Gibraltar, and consequently a British subject, at that time residing in Greece, had his house attacked by an Athenian mob, sacked, and valuable papers destroyed. Another British subject residing in Athens, Mr Finlay, the historian, was also a sufferer from the bad government of Greece, for the King took some of his land without compensation. Don Pacifico was an adventurer, and he demanded damages to an enormous sum, but he brought no case in the Greek courts of justice, for he could not sue the mob; neither did Mr Finlay, who could not sue the King.

Palmerston demanded compensation, and in order to bring pressure to bear upon the Greek Government Admiral Parker was instructed to blockade the Greek ports. To settle the difficulty a French commissioner

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was sent to arbitrate between the British subjects and the Greek Government, but his terms were rejected, and after some demur Greece accepted the English claim for damages.

The feeling of Europe was strongly against England in this matter, since Greece was a weak and feeble state, and friction ensued between France and England, and the French Government temporarily withdrew their ambassador from London. At this juncture the House of Lords censured Palmerston for his action, but in the House of Commons a resolution was introduced approving of his foreign policy. Palmerston, in a significant speech, which lasted from the dusk of one day to the dawn of the next, defended his position. He said that "the principles on which the foreign policy of this country has been conducted, and the sense of duty which has led us to think ourselves bound to afford protection to our fellow-subjects abroad, are proper and fitting guides for those who are charged with the government of England, as the Roman in the days of old held himself free from indignity when he could say *Civis Romanus sum*, so also a British subject, in whatever land he be, shall feel confident that the watchful eye and the strong arm of England shall protect him against injustice and wrong."

The House was roused to enthusiasm, and a majority of forty-six was recorded in favour of the resolution. It was Palmerston's hour and he became the most popular politician of the day.

The feeling of the public at large was in strong contrast to the feeling at Court, where Palmerston had many times offended the susceptibilities of the Queen. She had reason to complain that he did not keep her

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fully informed as to his foreign dispatches, and as she considered that the sovereign's influence should be especially exercised in foreign affairs, this was a grave offence. His hostility to France in the early years of her reign had led to her desire that he should be removed from the Foreign Office to the Colonial Office, but nothing came of it, for Palmerston was resolved to be at the Foreign Office or nowhere. Shortly after the Don Pacifico affair the Queen had once more to take him to task, and on 12th August 1850 she sent a stern memorandum to him: "The Queen requires, first, that Lord Palmerston will distinctly state what he proposes in a given case, in order that the Queen may know as distinctly to what she is giving her royal sanction. Secondly, having once given her sanction to a measure, that it be not arbitrarily altered or modified by the minister. Such an act she must consider as failing in sincerity towards the Crown, and justly to be visited by the exercise of her constitutional right of dismissing that minister. She expects to be kept informed of what passes between him and the foreign ministers, before important decisions are taken, based upon that intercourse; to receive the foreign dispatches in good time; and to have the drafts for her approval sent to her in sufficient time to make herself acquainted with their contents before they must be sent off."

In spite of this censure Palmerston did not resign, but a couple of months later his independent action in approving of Prince Louis Napoleon's *coup d'état* in Paris led to his dismissal from office.

Five years later he was back as Prime Minister. In 1856 Great Britain became involved in a war with

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China. A Chinese trading vessel, *The Arrow*, manned by a Chinese crew, but flying the British flag, was seized by the Chinese authorities. Sir John Bowring, the Governor of Hong-Kong, acted with intemperate arrogance toward them, and since they refused to apologize, Canton was bombarded. War with China ensued on the plea that she had failed to keep the terms of the Treaty of Nankin of 1842, and Lord Elgin was sent out to direct operations. Palmerston stood by Sir John Bowring on the plea "that the servants of the Crown placed in difficult positions in the remoter parts of the world, must be supported." The war dragged on till 1860, when peace was made.

That year an Italian named Orsini attempted to murder the Emperor Napoleon, and hatched his plot in London. The French were furious, and demanded that the law of England should be altered in order to bring such ruffians to justice.

The English people did not intend to be dictated to, but Palmerston, for once not voicing the popular feeling, introduced a "Conspiracy to Murder" Bill. It failed to find favour with the House, and Palmerston resigned.

The Conservative Government, under Lord Derby, came into power, and the most important piece of legislation of their short term of office was the Act for removing Jewish disabilities. From that time forward Jews were able to take their seats as members of Parliament.

The following year Lord Palmerston became Prime Minister for a second time, and remained in office till his death.

The eyes of Europe were turned to the endeavour of

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the states of Italy to unite and form one kingdom under Victor Emmanuel, the former ruler of Sardinia. The prospect was not welcomed by Austria, who had no wish to have a powerful Italian kingdom as her neighbour; but England, true to her liberal instincts, watched with sympathy the culmination of a struggle which had been going on for the greater part of the century, and in which many Italian patriots had fought and died. Italy, too, had come to our aid at the time of the Crimea, and had thus secured our friendship. In February 1861 the first Italian Parliament met, and Victor Emmanuel was declared King of Italy.

If Italy looked with gratitude toward England she looked with distrust toward Napoleon III, who had annexed Savoy and Nice, and that feeling we shared. There was a common fear in England at this time that the Emperor was contemplating an invasion of our country, and, though nothing came of the scare, it had one important result in the Volunteer movement. We had learnt the folly of being unprepared at the time of the Crimean War and a new military force was organized. Men were invited to join the army as Volunteers and were called upon to go through a certain period of training in order to be ready to defend their country in case of need. Years after, when compulsory military service was being advocated in many quarters, it was thought wise to make the Volunteer Force more thoroughly efficient for military service, and the Territorial Army of to-day is the organization that has taken its place.

At the time of Italy's triumph serious trouble was brewing in the United States between the southern, or Confederate, states and the northern, or Federal, states.

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The former were anxious to extend the slave trade, the latter to abolish slavery. The southern ports were blockaded, and the raw cotton, which we needed from America for our industry, could not be exported. Lancashire looked ruin in the face, for mill after mill closed down, and the cotton operatives were on the brink of starvation. The misery was somewhat alleviated by huge public subscriptions and the worst was tided over.

The American Civil War lasted for four years and ended in the defeat of the southern states, their subjection to the Federal Government, and the proclamation by President Lincoln of the total abolition of slavery in the United States. England herself was nearly involved in the American War. Two representatives of the Confederates were *en route* to France and England on a British ship, the *Trent*, when they were intercepted and imprisoned by the Federal navy. We demanded their immediate release, and when this was at last granted the extremely threatening situation was relieved.

Another cause of dispute arose later out of the *Alabama*, a ship built at Birkenhead for the Confederates. It is against the law of the civilized nations for warships to be supplied by neutrals to combatants in time of war. In spite of this the *Alabama* was finished, equipped and allowed to cross the Atlantic, where she did considerable damage to the Federal shipping.

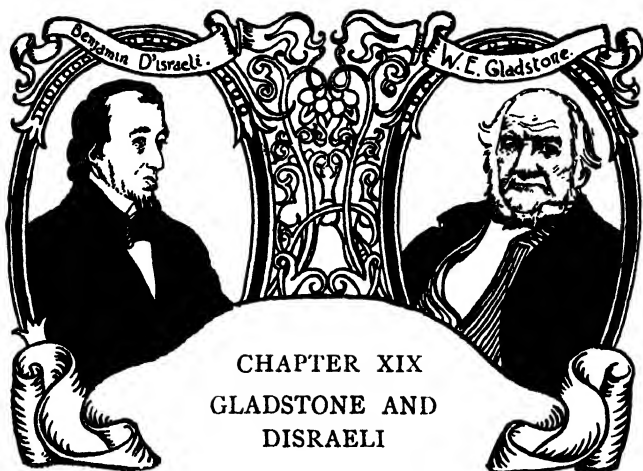
At the close of the war, the United States Government demanded from Britain enormous compensation for the damage done by the *Alabama*. The question was settled by arbitration at a conference held at Geneva, where in September 1872 the award was given in favour

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of the United States, and Britain was compelled to pay £3,250,000.

During the losing years of Palmerston's administration the affairs of Schleswig and Holstein occupied the attention of Europe. These provinces were wrested from Denmark in 1864 by Prussia and Austria, and in 1866, as the result of a successful war with Austria, they were finally annexed to Prussia. They were of great importance to Germany, for, apart from the fact that the majority of the inhabitants were German, these maritime provinces gave Prussia the necessary outlet to the sea for trade and shipping purposes. England had sided with Denmark during the dispute, and undoubtedly her failure to acknowledge the justice of Germany's plea led to an anti-English feeling which has never fully subsided.

With Palmerston's death in 1865 a new era in English politics began.



DURING the preceding years two great statesmen had been paving the way for their future careers as England's political leaders, William Ewart Gladstone and Benjamin Disraeli, men of strong contrast but alike in possessing vigorous personality.

William Ewart Gladstone (1809-1898) was of Scottish parentage, born in Liverpool, the son of a wealthy corn merchant who was created a baronet by Sir Robert Peel's advice. Gladstone was sent to Eton, where he was known as a hard worker and a boy of high moral character. He left school for Oxford, and there distinguished himself as an orator in the Oxford Union debating society. He was a young man of brilliant promise, and it was his father's ambition that he should be a statesman. Accordingly he entered Parliament in 1832 as member for Newark, and sat for the first time in the

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House of Commons, that was to be the scene of his trials and his triumphs for over sixty years. He devoted himself arduously to political work, but he found time both to go into society and, throughout his life, to do an enormous amount of serious reading. In religion he was a convinced Churchman, and his faith never wavered; in politics he was at first a Tory. His political convictions were to undergo a complete change, and many of the measures which he had opposed in his youth, he was, in later life, as leader of the Liberal party, to pilot through Parliament.

He married Catherine Glynne, and their union was almost an ideal one. Mrs Gladstone devoted herself to her husband's interests, social and domestic, and followed with pride his political career, never failing to be present in the Ladies' Gallery on the nights of his great speeches. Her unwavering sympathy and loving care in all that concerned his well-being, physical and spiritual, made home a precious place to Gladstone.

Gladstone's first rift with his party came in 1840, when he was opposed to the iniquitous war with China over the opium traffic. He held that the Chinese were completely justified in resisting, by force of arms, the importation of this deadly drug, and that we, as a nation, had no right to force it on them in the interests of our traders.

Gladstone was the political pupil of Sir Robert Peel, and he followed his master in the staunch advocacy of Free Trade, which was the crowning act of Peel's career. From this time onward Gladstone's opinions developed, and he became more and more rooted in Liberal principles, and, after Palmerston's death in 1865, was accepted as leader of the Whig party in the House of

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Commons, continuing in his office as Chancellor of the Exchequer. Lord John Russell became Prime Minister.

A very different upbringing had fallen to the lot of Gladstone's political rival, Benjamin Disraeli (1804-1881), the son of Isaac Disraeli, a literary man. Disraeli's parents were Jews, but the son became a Christian, and was baptised when he was thirteen years old. He was educated privately, and in his teens showed a bent toward literature, publishing his first novel, *Vivian Grey*, when he was twenty-three, and winning immediate recognition for his wit and satire. He became a well-known figure in London society as volume after volume came from his pen. Lady Blessington and other notable hostesses opened their doors to the author of *Contarini Fleming*, *Henrietta Temple*, and other widely read novels. The young man did his best to attract attention; he wore his hair in long black ringlets, and his dress was remarkable for its brilliancy, for he had the Oriental love of colour.

Disraeli was not satisfied with his literary success, but was ambitious of a political career and wished to enter Parliament as a Radical. By the time he obtained a seat, however, he had changed his views, and it was as a Tory that he was elected member for Maidstone in 1837. His first speech was not promising, and he was hooted down by some of the members, but he was undismayed. "The time will come when you *will* hear me," he declared. He was to wait for ten years before he could command the serious attention of the House.

Disraeli's marriage, like Gladstone's, was a happy one. He married Mrs Wyndham Lewis, a lady fifteen years his senior, whose ample fortune released him from the burden of debt that hindered his progress. On

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Disraeli's betrothal he presented her with a list of his liabilities, which she received with perfect good humour, saying: "I knew that Benjamin's mess was a large one, but until to-day I had no notion how large it was." They were admirably suited to one another, and after thirty years of married life Disraeli was able to testify that she had never given him a dull moment.

Though Disraeli opposed the repeal of the Corn Laws he had strong sympathy with the working classes, and made a tour of the north of England, inspecting the factories and visiting the homes of the people. As a result of this he wrote a novel, *Sybil*, in which he advocated an alliance between the rich and poor by a return to the old feudal system. He sought to spread his doctrine through the "Young England" party, which he founded, and was joined by a group of well-born young men eager to benefit the working classes as benevolent landlords and captains of industry, pledged to remember that the rights of labour were as sacred as the rights of property. But little came of their good intentions; there is no possible return to bygone institutions, youthful enthusiasm notwithstanding.

In 1847 Disraeli became virtual leader of the Tory party, to which he gave new life, and which under his guidance came to be known as the Conservative party, just as the Whigs under Gladstone came to be known as Liberals.

We have seen that the Reform Bill of 1832 gave power to the middle classes but left the working classes little better off than before, since only about one in fifty was qualified to vote. In 1848 Lord John Russell, as leader of the Whigs, introduced a second Reform Bill, but it was hotly opposed by Disraeli and thrown out. The de-

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mand for an extension of the suffrage grew, however, and between 1854 and 1859 one Reform Bill after another was introduced but failed to meet the approval of the House.

After Palmerston's death, as we have seen, Lord John Russell became Prime Minister and Gladstone leader of the House of Commons. In this capacity on 12th March 1866 he introduced a new Reform Bill, and in a magnificent speech pleaded for its acceptance. In his peroration, he reminded the members of the Opposition that : " Time is on our side. The great social forces which move onward in their might and majesty, and which the tumult of these debates does not for a moment impede or disturb—those great social forces are against you ; they work with us, they are marshalled in our support. And the banner which we now carry in the fight, though perhaps at some moment of the struggle it may droop over our sinking heads, yet will float again in the eye of heaven, and will be borne by the firm hands of the united people of the three kingdoms perhaps not to an easy, but to a certain and to a not distant victory."

The Bill passed its second reading by a majority of five only ; this was virtual defeat, and when the Government was defeated three months afterward, in Committee on the Bill, Lord John Russell and Gladstone resigned office.

Outside Parliament the agitation grew apace and the Reform League was active in working up popular enthusiasm. Crowded meetings were held throughout the country and in London a giant gathering in Hyde Park was arranged for. The Government was thoroughly alarmed, and a police order was issued forbidding the meeting as likely to lead to riot and disorder. On the appointed day an enormous crowd, headed by the secretary of the League, with flags flying and drums

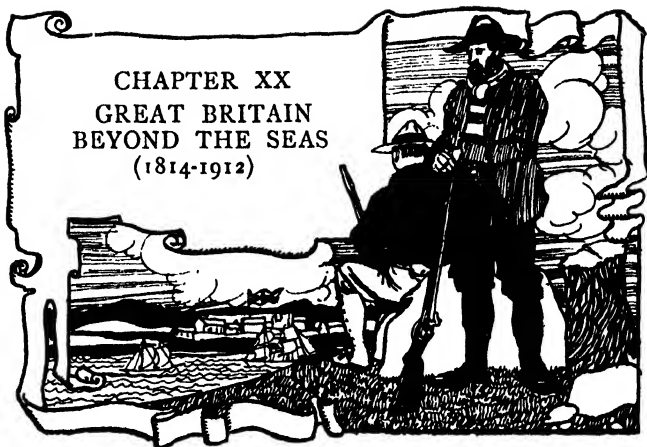
FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

beating, marched to the park and were refused admittance. Some of the demonstrators accepted the rebuff, turned round and marched to Trafalgar Square, where they held a meeting and passed their resolutions, but the more militant members were more determined; they defied the police, tore up the railings and thronged the prohibited area. In the scuffle that ensued a few people were injured, but when the Guards were called out to restore order, the populace, conscious of victory, went quietly home.

The whole country was now alive to the fact that an immediate extension of the franchise must be granted or serious disorder would ensue.

The Tories came into office with Lord Derby as Prime Minister and Disraeli as leader of the House of Commons, and on 18th March 1867 the latter introduced his Bill for amending the representation of the people. It included many what are called "fancy" franchises, thus, the vote was to be given to men who had a certain sum of money in the Savings Bank, were members of the learned professions, and so forth. The Bill safely passed its second reading, and then went into Committee, where amendment after amendment was adopted. Indeed the Bill was so altered that it was said that the only word of the original as drafted that remained was the initial one, "Whereas." Disraeli had no idea of going out of office over his Reform Bill, and he accepted the changes that were made. The Bill received the royal assent in August 1867. By it the franchise was conferred on all male householders of twelve months' occupation in cities and boroughs, and on lodgers who paid ten pounds a year for unfurnished rooms, and this practically amounted to household suffrage for men.

CHAPTER XX
GREAT BRITAIN
BEYOND THE SEAS
(1814-1912)



ON Lord Derby's resignation Disraeli attained the summit of his ambition and became Prime Minister. He saw a great future for Britain, not only at home but in our vast dominions, so sparsely populated, beyond the seas. "What should they know of England who only England know?" asks our imperialist poet, Kipling, and Disraeli was inspired by the same large vision when he said that England was "no longer a mere European power, she is the metropolis of a great empire, extending to the boundaries of the farthest ocean."

His imperialistic views were not shared by many politicians of the day. The colonies were looked on as encumbrances that would, when the time came, separate from us. People at home were not interested in these remote parts. The emigrants were mostly of the poorer classes, thrown out of work by the introduction of

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

machinery and other economic changes, who hoped to find that the New World would give them larger opportunities of leading industrious, happy, prosperous lives.

We had indeed great possessions, for the Empire of India, Canada, South Africa, Australia and New Zealand owed allegiance to the English Crown. But had we treated them as possessions to be ruled from Westminster for English profit by legislators careless of local conditions, we should not hold them now. The North American colonies had revolted from us, and became independent as the United States, and it was expected in some quarters that Canada would follow suit. The history of Canada, briefly, was as follows:—Lower Canada (Quebec) had been secured from the French by General Wolfe's victory in 1759, and by the Treaty of Paris in 1763 our conquests in North America had been acknowledged. The Catholic French in Lower Canada continued to speak their own tongue, and were unmolested in their religion, their loyalty being thus secured. Upper Canada (Ontario) was colonized by the British, and was Protestant in religion. It was decided in 1791 that these two provinces should each have a separate government, under a governor and a council appointed by the Crown, and responsible to the Colonial Office in London, and not to the people whom they governed.

London was not in touch with Canada in those days as she is now. It was before the laying of the Atlantic cable, or the great railways and steamship companies had begun to operate in the remoter parts of the world. Members of our Houses of Parliament could not tell the real needs of the colonists, and the peculiar difficulties of a people scattered over a vast tract of country. The Canadians were swift to find this out and demanded

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that the legislative assembly should consist of members elected by themselves. England refused and insurrections immediately broke out in the colony, headed by Papineau, the leader of the House of Assembly in Lower Canada (1837). The Constitution of Canada was temporarily suspended, and Lord Durham was sent out with full authority to restore order. He was an able man and the task before him was an arduous and difficult one, for as a contributory cause to the unrest among the colonists, the upper and lower provinces, alien in tongue and creed, were at odds with one another. "I found," he said, "two nations warring in the bosom of a single state ; I found a struggle not of principles but of races."

Lord Durham's scheme for the reorganization of Canada was a wise and far-seeing one, but unfortunately he interpreted his office as giving him absolute power, and by ordering the deportation of some of the rebels, and by other autocratic acts, he was considered to have exceeded his commission. His conduct was so vehemently attacked in the House of Lords by Lord Brougham that he resigned, and returned to England, after five months' absence, to die a broken and disappointed man.

He wrote a masterly report on the condition of Canada, suggesting the reforms necessary to maintain order, and this document has been of immense use to our legislators. He was the first to recognize the necessity of consulting the feelings of the colonists themselves. In 1841 a Bill was passed through Parliament uniting Upper and Lower Canada, and giving the colonists a popular form of government, with a House of Assembly similar to our House of Commons, elected by the

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colonists, and an Upper House, or Legislative Council, containing twenty members nominated by the Crown.

The years that followed were the dawning years of Canada's greatness; new towns sprang up and grew and prospered, trade increased and emigrants flocked from Great Britain.

Lord Durham in his report anticipated that other of our North American provinces might be anxious to unite with Upper and Lower Canada, and on 19th February 1867 a Bill was introduced into Parliament for the federation of the provinces. They were empowered to elect members to represent them in the House of Assembly. The form of the Legislative Council was altered and it was now to consist of seventy-two members nominated by the Governor-General. In due course New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, the Hudson Bay Company territory (now known as Manitoba), joined the union. British Columbia consented to unite only on condition that a railway should be constructed across Canada, and this subsequently led to the laying of nearly 3000 miles of the Canadian Pacific Railway (opened in 1886) which runs from Montreal to Vancouver. Newfoundland alone remained isolated and refused to form part of the Dominion of Canada.

Canada was conquered and colonized for England; the nucleus of our South African Empire was bought. In 1814 Cape Colony was finally given up by the Dutch Government, and Britain took control. From 1819 onward emigrants from Great Britain began to settle there. They had many difficulties to encounter, some of which arose from the native populations, the Hottentots and the Kaffirs or negroes, two different

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racés (to the latter belonged the fierce and warlike tribes of the Zulus and the Matabeles). The South African slaves were emancipated by the Act of 1833, much to the disgust of the Dutch and English colonists, for labour was scarce, and the negro as freeman was not so easy to employ as when he was bond. A large number of the Dutch settlers—or Boers, as they were



Boers trekking into Natal

called—at odds with the British Government, left Cape Colony, and with their household goods packed in creaking ox-wagons, trekked north to settle in Natal, where they cleared the country of the Matabele, and hoped to found new homes free from British control. But in 1843 Natal was declared a British colony; the Boers were obliged to pack up once more, and they

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settled in the Transvaal and the Orange River Territory, the latter of which they succeeded at length in having recognized as the Orange Free State.

Down to 1867 the colonists in South Africa thought only of trade and agriculture, but at that date a tremendous impetus was given to emigration. A child playing on the banks of the Vaal was presented by a Kaffir boy with a shining pebble. The little one showed the treasure round, and it was found to be a diamond worth £500. Other stones were picked up of equal value, and when this became known a general desire to "get rich quick" led to a rush to the diamond fields, in which grew up the mining town of Kimberley, and to the Transvaal, where gold had been discovered. Among these adventurous spirits was one whose name was to stand high among the makers of South Africa—Cecil Rhodes.

Our modern system of colonial government is to teach our colonies, when they have attained maturity, to look after themselves, and consequently in 1872 Cape Colony was granted a Constitution similar to the one adopted in Canada, and, by an Act in 1877, other South African colonies were allowed to join the union.

Australia and New Zealand have had a shorter period of civilized life than our other possessions. Australia was the last of the great continents to be discovered by the white man. In the years 1684-1690 an Englishman explored part of the coast, and Captain Cook, on his memorable voyage of discovery, landed at Botany Bay on 28th April 1770. He named the adjacent country New South Wales, claiming it for Britain, and explored part of the coast.

Twenty years later ships set sail from England with

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a pitiful cargo of convicts who had been sentenced to transportation, and who were to work out their sentences at Botany Bay. They were shovelled into the country boat-load after boat-load, and when their sentences had expired and they regained their freedom grants of land were allotted them.

We have travelled far in our treatment of offenders since those cruel days, for the prisoners who misbehaved in Botany Bay were chained, put on board ship and transported across the wide Pacific to one of our tiny possessions, Norfolk Island, a thousand miles from anywhere, where, working in chains and controlled by the lash, the last vestiges of humanity deserted them. "Let a man be what he will when he comes out here," one said, "he is soon as bad as all the rest; the heart of a man is taken from him and there is given him instead the heart of a beast."

Australia was not entirely peopled by the criminal, the wastrel and the warders. Some prisoners, quite decent folk, who would not have been sentenced under the First Offenders Act of to-day, were transported for trivial offences. Free white settlers came too, often sent by relatives who found them troublesome at home, to do better in freer conditions.

But so long as Botany Bay was a penal settlement emigration to Australia was not in popular favour. True, convict labour was very useful to the free settlers, as the natives were of a low order of intelligence, but nevertheless New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania) protested successfully against the dumping of our malefactors. Only in Western Australia, where labour was very scarce, were the criminals eagerly welcomed by farmers and sheep dealers.

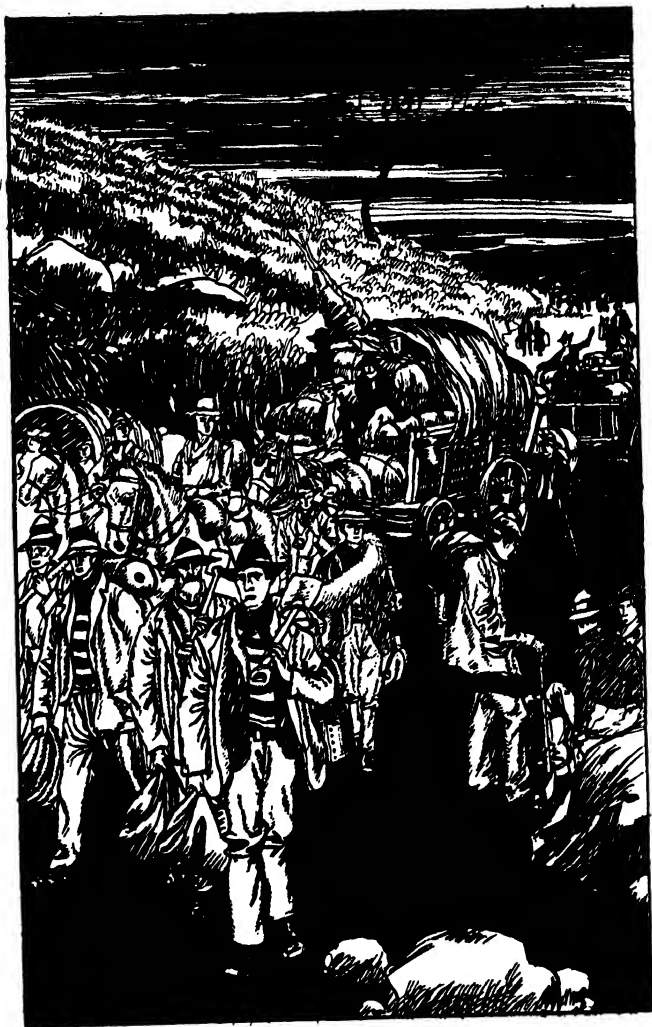
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In 1851 gold was discovered in New South Wales and Victoria, and the gold rush that ensued is one of the memorable events in the history of Australia. The original settlers deserted their farms and homesteads and hastened to the diggings to peg out claims, eager to make their fortunes. The gold fever attracted hundreds of thousands who remained in Australia—their fortunes made or to make—to settle on the land and to occupy their energies in the cultivation of the soil ; or in trade in the cities that were beginning to spring up round the coast, in Sydney, with its magnificent harbour, in Melbourne, and other places.

In 1850 representative government was given to the different provinces in Australia, New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia and Van Diemen's Land. In 1900 these provinces united and demanded a Constitution from the home Government and the Australian Commonwealth Bill was passed.

New Zealand, too, had attracted English colonists, who found in these beautiful fertile islands a permanent home. The native race here, the Maoris, are a fine people, and loyal to British rule. New Zealand received its Constitution in 1852.

Thus Great Britain had obtained a large slice of the earth for her surplus population, and the greater part was not won by the sword. The English-speaking races have the gift for colonization and they have succeeded in holding their own in the struggle with nature and in wresting their living often from a barren soil or in difficult and dangerous surroundings. To our self-governing colonies has been conceded all but the power of peace and war, of making treaties and of appointing the Governor-General. It is in their interest



The Rush for Gold

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to remain loyal to the mother country whose navy protects their commerce, and their coasts, and to whose army and resources they can look in case of need.

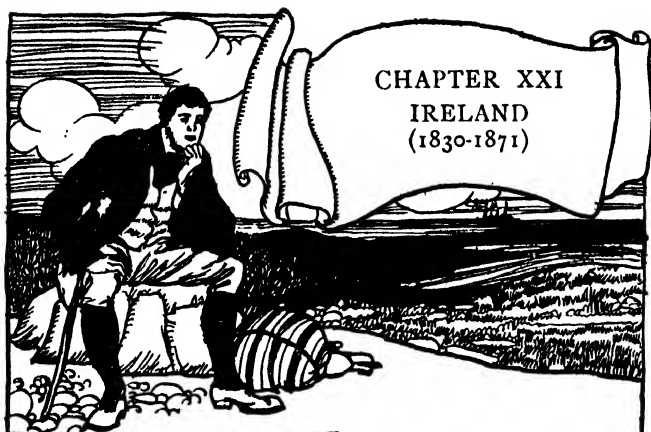
"We must cease to think," says Professor Seeley, "that the history of England is the history of the Parliament that sits at Westminster, and the affairs which are not discussed there cannot belong to English history. When we have accustomed ourselves to contemplate the whole Empire together and call it England, we shall see that here too is a United States. Here too is a great homogeneous people, one in blood, language, religion and laws, but dispersed over a boundless space."

As the self-governing dominions have grown in importance they have shown every willingness to share the burden of Empire with the mother country. In a later chapter we shall see how, at the time of the South African War, they came to her aid.

As the years go on it is increasingly realized that the British Empire should maintain a supreme navy, for that is the great defence of our island kingdom. Germany is spending more on armaments year by year, and it is urged that our standard should be "two keels to one"—that is to say, that we should possess twice as many battleships. We have not reached that standard, but as a naval power we are still the foremost in the world. The burden of maintaining the navy is a heavy one, and Canada, Australia and South Africa are anxious to do their share. Canada and Australia may decide to build fleets of their own; New Zealand contributes annually toward the upkeep of a fleet to be used in Australian and New Zealand waters, and, in

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addition, has recently presented to this country a fully equipped battleship. When Mr Borden, the Canadian Prime Minister, came to England in 1912, to confer with the members of our Government and others on the subject of Imperial defence, Mr Churchill, the First Lord of the Admiralty, welcomed the mission, as "the touch of the hand of a strong friend when serious business has to be done."



GREAT BRITAIN learnt to trust her colonies and to believe that sound policy necessitated that they should be allowed to govern themselves, but, though the problems of England are not the problems of Ireland, our sister island remained throughout the nineteenth century under English rule, for, by the Act of Union of 1800, Ireland ceased to have a parliament of her own sitting in Dublin, and sent duly elected representatives to Westminster.

Ireland was never in a settled state, and was the source of endless anxiety and trouble. Disraeli, in a few words, summed up the just causes of discontent and disturbance: "a starving population, an absentee aristocracy and an alien Church."

The Irish peasantry were held in the grip of more dire poverty than the agricultural labourers in

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England. Badly fed, housed in hovels, clothed in rags, uneducated, they lacked the power to help themselves. They lived mainly on potatoes, and not many of them, with herrings and milk as an occasional treat. If their one crop failed they starved. This happened in 1845, when the dreaded potato disease appeared in Ireland and distress was acute, to be followed the next year by the worst famine Ireland has ever known, for in one night in August the potato crop was ruined—the people were face to face with death. They perished by the roadside, in the overcrowded workhouses, in the mud cabins, which were their apologies for homes. W. E. Forster in his report described Westport, and the same might have been said of many another stricken town. It was “a strange and fearful sight, like what we read of in beleaguered cities; its streets crowded with gaunt wanderers, sauntering to and fro with hopeless air and hunger-struck look—a mob of starved, almost naked women around the poor-house clamouring for soup tickets. Our inn the headquarters of the road engineer and pay clerks beset by a crowd of beggars for work.” In another place, “the survivors were like walking skeletons—the men gaunt and haggard, stamped with the livid mark of hunger; the children crying with pain; the women in some of the cabins too weak to stand.” In the district of Skibbereen alone 5000 out of 62,000 inhabitants died in three months.

All Europe contributed to the relief of the distressed people. Soup kitchens were opened, where food was given to all who required it, and employment was made for the workless. Unfortunately the appointed relief work was not wisely chosen; roads were made leading

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nowhere in particular, which were never finished, and little hills were levelled to the ground for the sake of something to do. It was proposed in Parliament that £16,000,000 should be spent on the construction of Irish railways, but this failed to meet with general acceptance, and as a compromise money was advanced to Irish railway companies to assist them in their enterprise.

After the famine, succeeded an epidemic to which the emaciated people fell easy victims. Not only were the poor destitute, but many of the small farmers who just managed to scrape along were so hard hit by the raising of the Poor Law rate that they were ruined. For it meant that after a year of terrible distress their expenses were more than doubled. Ireland was no home for the Irish, and from this time onward a flood of emigrants poured into the United States. Numbers died on the journey out, but of those who survived many prospered in the new land. By death and emigration Ireland lost nearly half her population, and the country, thus depopulated, was unable to cultivate its resources and improve the lot of her people.

Throughout the century agitation had been going on for the repeal of the Act of Union, and the Irish Americans joined with their countrymen on this side of the Atlantic in forming the Fenian Brotherhood, with the purpose of separating Ireland from England and establishing a republic. They held secret meetings and expressed their views in a paper called *The Irish People*; as these views were treasonable the leaders were seized and sentenced to terms of imprisonment.

And yet the movement grew. At the conclusion of

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the Civil War a large number of Irishmen who had made money in America returned to their native land to sow further seeds of rebellion, in the hope that a war would break out between England and the United States. Though disappointed in this expectation, in 1866 they organized a raid on Canada and a body of Irishmen crossed the Niagara, and did a little damage. The effort was a disastrous failure, and so too was a proposed rising in Ireland, for a heavy snowstorm fell on the day appointed, and the plans of the rebels were frustrated.

Other smaller ventures were not more successful. In 1867 two Fenian prisoners were being conveyed to gaol in Manchester; their comrades attempted to rescue them, and in the scuffle that ensued a police officer was killed. Five of the men were caught and tried, and three of them were hanged. A few months later other daring spirits planned to blow up Clerkenwell gaol, where two of their comrades were imprisoned. The dynamite explosion destroyed the wall of the prison, killing twelve innocent people, but fortunately for the prisoners inside, they had been removed to another part of the building and were unhurt.

It had to be recognized that the Fenian movement had its root in legitimate grievances, and that something must be done to remedy them. After the General Election in 1868 a large Liberal majority was returned to Parliament, and Gladstone came into office as Prime Minister. His first work was to remedy the trouble due to the "alien Church" in Ireland, where, though nine-tenths of the population were Roman Catholics, the English Reformed Church was the State religion. Ireland was divided into 2400 parishes, each with a

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clergyman to attend to the Protestant flock, but in some of them there was not one single member for his congregation. The Irish Church Bill passed through the House of Commons, but met with severe treatment in the House of Lords, especially from the bishops, who saw the Church in danger. The Queen, though as a loyal member of the Church of England she disliked the Bill, urged conciliation, for she was fully alive to the danger that might arise if the Bill failed to pass. It became law in July 1869, and the union between the Church of England and the Church of Ireland was dissolved. The revenues of the Church were to be used partly for compensating all the bishops and clergy who suffered from the disestablishment, and partly for the relief of distress. From this time forward the Protestant Church in Ireland, with its stronghold in the province of Ulster, was ruled by a synod which was incorporated by Royal Charter.



A GREAT feat in engineering was accomplished by the French engineer, Ferdinand de Lesseps, when in 1869 the Suez Canal, connecting the Mediterranean with the Red Sea, was opened, making the continent of Africa a giant island, and shortening our route to India by some 5000 miles.

The English Government at the outset had been unfavourable to the proposal, and the expense of this vast undertaking was originally shared by Egypt and France.

In 1875 the spendthrift Khedive of Egypt, Ismail Pasha, was in monetary difficulties, and was anxious to dispose of his shares in the Suez Canal. This came to the knowledge of the able journalist, Mr Frederick Greenwood, at that time editor of *The Pall Mall Gazette*. He communicated his information to Lord Derby, for

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he considered that England would be unfortunately situated if the shares were bought for France, thus enabling that country to have complete control of the waterway. Lord Derby did not see his way to act in the matter, and Mr Greenwood approached Disraeli, who, with his imperialistic views, saw that this was an opportunity not to be missed. He bought the shares for England, borrowing the necessary sum—£4,000,000—from the great Jewish bankers, the Rothschilds, in order, as he said, to secure "the free intercourse of the waters" in "the great chain of fortresses from London almost to India."

France and England now shared this waterway between West and East, and were both interested in the future of Egypt. Ismail had got the affairs of his country into a thorough tangle, and was forced to abdicate in favour of his son Tewfik, whose power, however, was only to be nominal, for in order to re-organize the finances of Egypt, France and England assumed "dual control," and became jointly responsible for the administration of Egypt's pecuniary affairs.

Many patriotic Egyptians resented this interference, which reduced the Khedive to a mere figurehead. They wanted Egypt for the Egyptians and were anxious to clear the country of European advisers. These malcontents found a leader in Arabi Pasha, and the natives rallied to him in their thousands. For a time he had the government of the country in his hands, overawing the Khedive and compelling him to dismiss his ministers. Arabi aimed at closing the Suez Canal. He fortified Alexandria, and hundreds of the European population were massacred.

Great anxiety was felt in England, and Gladstone

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voiced the general feeling of the country when he said that "we should not fully discharge our duty if we did not endeavour to convert the present interior state of Egypt from anarchy and conflict to peace and order," and he went on to say that if no other European country would share the responsibility the work would be undertaken by England alone. France, after some hesitation, refused to join us, and we were left to go forward single-handed.

A British fleet, under Admiral Seymour, bombarded Alexandria on 11th July 1882. The forts were wrecked, Arabi fled, and bluejackets were landed to protect the inhabitants. A month later, on 19th August, an expeditionary force under Sir Garnet Wolseley, with 1200 officers and 30,000 men, landed at Port Said. General Wolseley had matured his plans, and was able to make an immediate advance toward Tel-el-Kebir, where Arabi had entrenched his soldiers behind earth-works. The English army reached the settlement just after midnight (13th September 1882) and attacked at once. The Egyptians were taken by surprise, and after one charge of the English bayonets took to flight, Arabi amongst them. He was captured the next morning and sentenced to death, but the sentence was not carried out and he was exiled to Ceylon. The English forces now occupied Cairo.

As a result of Sir Garnet Wolseley's success the "dual control" came to an end, since neither France nor any other European power had lent a hand in putting down the rebellion and upholding the authority of the Khedive. But England had no intention at this time of burdening herself with the government of Egypt. Her immediate concern was to restore order in the

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country and leave Tewfik to rule his own subjects. With this in view the garrisons were to be withdrawn.

While this policy was in contemplation trouble was brewing in the trackless desert of the Soudan—the southern part of the Khedive's dominions, between Wady-Halfa and the Equator. The inhabitants belonged to many wild wandering tribes, Circassians, Bashi-Bazouks and Arabs. They were slave-dealers and some years previously, in 1877, Charles George Gordon had been appointed by the Khedive Governor-General in the Soudan with a commission to put down the slave trade.

Gordon's military career had begun in the Crimea, when as an engineer subaltern of nineteen he had worked in the trenches. At the time of the Tai-ping rebellion in China, Li Hung Chang, the Governor-General, asked England for an experienced British officer to lead the Chinese troops against the rebels. Colonel Gordon was selected, and at the head of a miscellaneous body of Chinese soldiers, with European officers, he waged war against the insurgents. He led the storming parties, carrying no other weapon than a little cane, and it seemed to the soldiers as though he were under a charm. It took two years' hard work to crush the rebellion, and when it was over the Emperor of China offered Gordon a large present of money. Throughout his life he was totally indifferent to rewards and honours; he refused, and left China as poor a man as he entered it. But honours were showered upon him. He was elevated to the rank of a mandarin, was made Ti-tu, the highest rank in the Chinese army, and packed in his trunk the yellow jacket and peacock's feather which is the insignia of supreme honour in the Celestial Empire.



General Gordon
Edward Clifford

the Emery Wall

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After some years in England he took up his post in the Soudan, and brought to bear on his task the great qualities of a great nature. He had an almost miraculous power over these wild tribes and ruled them with sympathy and understanding. His was a magnetic personality—a mystic and a man of action, with unbounded faith in a living God, to whose guidance he entrusted his life. Under Gordon's sway the desert tribes were wisely and ably governed, but he did not remain long enough to ensure permanency in his work. He was recalled to England, and much of the good work that he had done was wasted and disorder reigned once more. A prophet arose among these wild Mohammedan tribes, calling himself the Mahdi, or Chosen One, and announcing that he was sent to lead the people. They believed in him and he was soon at the head of a formidable force, eager to wage war with the Egyptians. He met with many successes and the Khedive's Government decided to send Colonel Hicks, an Anglo-Egyptian officer who had taken service in the Egyptian army, with a worthless rabble to crush the rising. Hicks met with immediate disaster; he himself was killed and his army routed. At this crisis it was decided that the best policy would be to leave the desert to the all-conquering Mahdi, and to evacuate the towns in the Soudan which were garrisoned by Egyptian soldiers.

Who was to be sent on this mission? Parliament and Press were unanimous—General Gordon, the man who, from the depth of his experience, had expressed the opinion that the "Soudan is a useless possession, ever was and ever will be." Gordon accepted the mission and reached Cairo, where he had an interview with Sir Evelyn Baring (afterwards Lord Cromer), who gave him

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final instructions. He then, accompanied by Colonel Stewart, but with no military escort, set out for Khartoum. "I come without soldiers but with God on my side," he said. "I will not fight with any weapons save justice."

When he reached the town he found that a very difficult task confronted him; till then he had not fully appreciated the strength of the Mahdi's movement. The city of Berber fell into the Mahdi's hands and Khartoum was thus isolated. Gordon could not remove the garrison of Khartoum without leaving the trading population to their fate, and he decided to remain. The point has never been settled as to whether he had a free hand to do so if he thought best, or whether he was acting contrary to instructions. In any case Gordon was not a man to obey hard and fast orders. He often acted on inspiration, and he owned in his diary to "having been very insubordinate to Her Majesty's government and its officials but it is my nature and I cannot help it."

Gordon was shut up in Khartoum, the telegraph lines between the town and Cairo were cut, the Mahdi's forces surrounded the town. There was no sign of a hoped-for relief expedition, but from day to day the brave General kept up his heart and that of the hungry townsfolk, for provisions soon ran short. In circumstances such as these Gordon's dauntless spirit had full scope. Fear had no meaning to him; death he looked on as a welcome friend. Disappointment after disappointment was met with unfailing courage. In September he sent Colonel Stewart to seek news of the long-delayed expedition, but Stewart and his party were slain.

Meantime the public at home were anxious as to

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Gordon's safety, and in the autumn of 1884 an expedition, under Wolseley, who had been rewarded by a peerage for his previous success in Egypt, was organized to go to his relief. Unfortunately there were many delays at the outset, and unfortunately, too, a plan of campaign suggested by Major Kitchener, which would have saved invaluable time, was not adopted.

Lord Wolseley despatched Sir Herbert Stewart with a flying column for Khartoum. On the journey across the desert the force was twice attacked, and Stewart was killed. Sir Charles Wilson succeeded to the command, but further delay occurred before he could sail up the Nile to Khartoum. As they neared the desert city the officers levelled their field-glasses to see if the Egyptian flag still flew over Government House. The buildings stood out clearly in the bright light. Alas ! Government House was seen to be a ruin. They were too late !

And Gordon ? Day by day he had cheered the starving inhabitants, had told them that the English " must come to-morrow," but, as one of them wrote : " They never came, and we began to think that they must have been defeated after all. We all became heart-broken." Day by day Gordon recorded in his diary the pitiful records of the beleaguered town, the pitiful hope deferred, and his hair grew white in the weary weeks of waiting. At early dawn, on the 26th of January 1885, the dervishes broke into the town. Gordon knew the end had come. Clad in his white uniform, he stood motionless on the steps of Government House, girt with his sword, and holding a revolver. The seething, angry mob surged through the town, and made straight for the building, bearing down upon

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him. His sword remained in its scabbard, his revolver undischarged, as the dark eyes glared at him and the spears hacked him down. In their blind, unreasoning wrath the fanatical tribesmen spurned and maltreated the body as it lay in the dust. But the noble spirit had ascended beyond their cruel rage. His dust lies mingled with the sands of Egypt, but his memory will ever remain an inspiration to his countrymen. His faults were those of a great nature, and the kingdom of God was within him.

“ Unto each man his handiwork, unto each his crown
The just Fate gives ;
Whoso takes the world's life on him and his own lays down
He, dying so, lives.”

England learned with horror the news of her hero's death, and the public anger blazed against the government which had delayed in sending aid to him.

The British forces were withdrawn from the Soudan, and for the time the desert was left to the fanatical followers of the Mahdi.

The work of the next ten years was concentrated on reforms in Lower Egypt, and a great deal was done to better the condition of the people. As rain rarely falls in the valley of the Upper Nile, the crops depend on the yearly overflow of the river. By constructing a great dam at Assouan, a marvel of engineering, it was found possible to regulate this flow, and thus ensure the irrigation of the land, and add enormously to the prosperity of the country. Schools, banks, travelling hospitals, the abolition of forced labour on public works and other such social measures, have done much to civilize the natives. The Egyptian army, too, was

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improved, the soldiers receiving better pay, better food, and better treatment generally.

When Sir Herbert Kitchener succeeded Sir Evelyn Wood as Sirdar, or head of the Egyptian army, it was decided that the time had come to reconquer the Soudan, and put a stop once for all to dervish attacks upon the Egyptian provinces. The Khalifa had succeeded the Mahdi as the prophet of these wild men.

The Sirdar was the very man for his post, a keen soldier, a strict disciplinarian, a master of method, he knew how to look after his troops and get the best work out of them. In order to effect the reconquest of the Soudan the railway was pushed forward to Dongola, to Berber, and later to Khartoum. In 1896



Lord Kitchener

Dongola was occupied, in 1897 Berber was captured, but the final struggle took place in 1898. On Good Friday, 8th April, the Egyptian army encountered the Khalifa's forces at Atbara. After less than an hour's sharp fighting the enemy was completely routed; the field was strewn with dead and dying, and the remnant were nearly all made prisoners. But this blow, crushing as it was, was not sufficient to break the spirit of these fanatics, inspired by the promise of their prophet that though the infidels might reach the walls of Khartoum they would inevitably perish there in their thousands and their bones be left to whiten the desert sand.

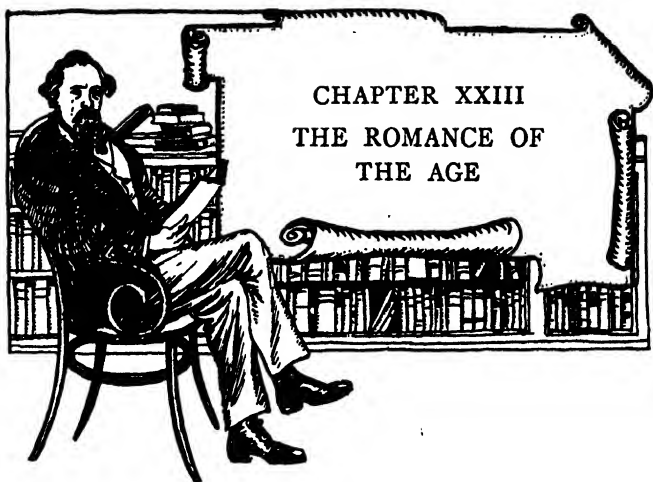
The final battle took place at Omdurman, near

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Khartoum, on 2nd September. The dervishes fought magnificently, but they were unskilled in the modern arts of war, and no match for Sir Herbert Kitchener's well-trained soldiers. Mr G. W. Steevens, who was an eyewitness to the encounter, wrote that "the honour of the fight must still go with the men who died. Our men were perfect but the dervishes were superb. Their riflemen, mangled by every kind of death and torment that man can devise, clung round the black flag and the green, emptying their poor rotten home-made cartridges dauntlessly. Their spearmen charged death at every minute hopelessly. A dusky line got up and stormed forward: it bent, broke up, fell apart and disappeared. Before the smoke had cleared another line was bending and storming forward in the same track." Out of their force of 50,000 men more than half were killed and wounded. The Khalifa fled, but was killed in action a year later, and his force surrendered.

On 4th September 1898 the British and Egyptian flags flew from the ruined palace of Khartoum. Gordon was avenged. The Sirdar was raised to the peerage as Lord Kitchener of Khartoum.

From that time onward there has been no serious trouble in Egypt. Lord Cromer, the historian of modern Egypt, who for twenty-four years acted as Agent and Consul-General at Cairo, and whose work in Egypt places him amongst the great pro-consuls of the British Empire, resigned in 1907, and Sir Eldon Gorst was appointed to succeed him. He was followed in 1911 by Lord Kitchener, who was able to report a year later that "the prosperity of the people is increasing generally to an extent which is remarkable."



IN studying history we often concern ourselves too largely with the careers of those who have climbed to success, and forget the average people who are the bulk of every nation, the people who never get into the papers, live quietly and obscurely, who often do the painful right and refuse the pleasant wrong, but on whom the limelight of history never rests. They have their interpreters in the great writers, those keen observers of the life around them, who have the mystic power of storing impressions in their brain and reproducing them at will just as we do the records of the gramophone. In Elizabeth's age the great dramatists held the mirror up to nature; in Victorian times the novelists became the chroniclers of everyday folk.

The nineteenth century was rich in writers of fiction,

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and written on its roll of honour are some of the greatest names in our literature.

On a high place on that roll stand the names of Charles Dickens (1812-1870) and William Makepeace Thackeray (1811-1863), the one recording the life of the poor, the downtrodden, the shabby genteel, with touch of caricature, the other that of the well-to-do and socially aspiring with more than a touch of satire. Charles Dickens in the days of his prosperity must have looked back sadly on his drab and sordid childhood. He was born at Landport, Portsea, the second of a little brood of children, the family of a clerk in the Navy Pay Office who earned the modest income of eighty pounds a year. When Charles was five the family moved to London to cheap lodgings in Camden Town, and London was the rich field of his observation and the home of his genius. The child early learnt the sad shifts of poverty; the pawnshop, the duns, the debtors' prison were familiar to him, for his father, overwhelmed by monetary difficulties, was imprisoned in the Marshalsea. At this time, when the fortunes of the Dickens family were at the lowest ebb, the boy was sent to earn his six or seven shillings a week sticking on labels in a blacking factory. He never forgot or forgave this humiliation, and in *David Copperfield*, which is in part the story of his own life, he tells us that "no words can express the secret agony of my soul." Charles Dickens in this novel portrayed his father in Mr Micawber, a delightful character whose moods vary from hopelessness to hope, and who in his direst need still believes that "something will turn up." A few years passed and the optimism was justified, for the long-expected "something" was the genius of the son.

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The boy left the factory for a couple of years at school, and he then passed on to be clerk in a lawyer's office, and later a reporter for the Press. He soon found his true vocation, and in *Sketches by Boz* started his literary career. This was followed by *The Pickwick Papers*, which made his name, and tells of the travels and adventures of a genial old bachelor, his gay friends and his Cockney servant, Sam Weller, with a boisterous • humour which seems destined to delight the readers of all time. The story was originally begun as the descriptive letterpress to a series of drawings; the artist died, and Dickens was left to develop his book according to his own genius.

Dickens had other work to do for the world besides making it laugh; he had to make it smart under a consciousness of social wrongs. If his schooling in books had been scanty he had served many terms in the hard school of life. In *The Pickwick Papers* he had shown the hard lot of the poor debtor cast into the Fleet Prison without hope. In his next novel, *Oliver Twist*, he takes us into some of the vilest dens in London, where criminals plot crime and murder, where little lads are taught to cheat and steal. He gives us in Oliver a picture of the poor workhouse lad, half starved and compelled to bear the humiliation of the pauper's lot. In *Nicholas Nickleby* he gives a lurid picture of the cruelties inflicted on hapless children in cheap boarding-schools, the neglected instruction and the stinted fare, in the wretched "Dotheboys Hall," where Nicholas goes as a teacher. In *Bleak House* he tells of the tedious process of the Law Courts, and how a prolonged suit may break the hearts, empty the pockets and wear out the lives of the litigants. In another

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mood Charles Dickens wrote his strong novel, *The Tale of Two Cities*—London and Paris at the time of the French Revolution—and in Sydney Carton drew a picture of a dissolute wasted life that is redeemed, through love, to noble self-sacrifice. Dickens more than any other man awakened in the hearts of men and women at Christmas time an unselfish desire to help others who are in sorrow or distress, and this, the true spirit of Christmas, has made the festival the season of social love and goodwill now so familiar to us all. *The Christmas Carol* is secure of a permanent place in the affection of young and old, and had its author written no other book he would be entitled to rank among the forces to be reckoned with in his generation. "Then is Christmas dead?" asked a coster-girl when she was told that Dickens had passed away.

Thackeray, whose genius was of a different order, paid a generous tribute to his brother author when he said that he was "unquestionably as far above the other English novelists as Shakespeare above the other dramatists." Thackeray had no such hazardous upbringing as his contemporary. Born in Calcutta, the son of an Indian Civil Servant, he was brought to England as a child and educated at Charterhouse School, then in the heart of the city. Round the precincts of that ancient foundation, where schoolboys were taught and elderly men found a refuge in adversity, he wandered in his boyhood, and in his manhood it furnished the setting for his beautiful description of the declining years of Colonel Newcome, one of the most lovable characters in fiction. Arthur Pendennis, Clive Newcome and others of his heroes are shown as schoolboys at the Charterhouse. Thackeray went to

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Cambridge, and when he left came into a small fortune. With gambling, starting a newspaper and other devices, he soon got rid of this handicap to strenuous work. His aim was to be an artist, and he studied on the Continent both in Paris and Weimar before he



The Charterhouse, near Smithfield

found that the true implement of his art was the pen and not the brush.

He contributed to *Frazer's Magazine*, and wrote for it, *History of Samuel Titmarsh*, *The Great Hoggarty Diamond*, and *The Memoirs of Barry Lyndon*. When *Punch* was started in 1841 Thackeray contributed *Jeames's Diary* and *The Snob Papers*; but it was not till *Vanity Fair* appeared that he was hailed as a master. In it he drew with a magic pen the follies and foibles of society and well-to-do folk, an inglorious company for the most part, purse-proud city magnates,

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

dissolute baronets, spendthrift younger sons, scheming clergymen, and, dominating them, a creation of supreme genius, Becky Sharp, the incarnate spirit of the adventuress in *Vanity Fair*. Becky, from her childhood upward, had to fight her own way in the world, and one of her weapons was "her eyes habitually cast down, when they looked up they were very large, odd and attractive." We follow her career to its ignoble end, and in the course of the narrative we have a stirring picture of Brussels before and after the battle of Waterloo.

Vanity Fair was followed by other great novels, *The Newcomes* and *Pendennis*, and then Thackeray, who was always a keen student of the eighteenth century, produced the greatest historical novel in our language, *Henry Esmond*. It takes us back to the time of Queen Anne, when the Jacobites were plotting for the return of the house of Stuart, and Marlborough was winning his great victories at Blenheim and Ramillies. *The Virginians* appeared as a sequel, and the scene is laid partly in America when George Washington was making history at the time of the American War of Separation.

Dickens went to the lower classes for his figures, Thackeray to the upper, George Eliot (Marian Evans) (1819-1880) to the rural classes. She was a student of provincial England in mid-Victorian days. Born at Griff in Warwickshire and educated at Nuneaton and Coventry, she knew the Midlands and the Midland folk well. Her father was a land surveyor, and the daily life of her girlhood and young womanhood was spent among the farmers and country people. In after years she wrote gratefully of her early surroundings: "I have always thought that the most fortunate Britons

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are those whose experience has given them a practical share in many aspects of the national lot ; who have lived among the mixed commonalty, roughing it with them under difficulties, knowing how their food tastes to them, and getting acquainted with their notions and motives, not by inference, from traditional types in literature, or from philosophic theories, but from daily fellowship and observation." And she goes on to speak of the pathos of their very insignificance " in our comparison of their dim and narrow existence with the glorious possibilities of that human nature which they share." Rural England was a fortunate soil in which the seed of George Eliot's genius took root. By nature a student, at heart a sensitive human being, vibrating in response to the life around her, she read much, studied many languages and thought deeply.

Her reading, and the influence of some friends, led her away from the evangelical Christianity in which she had been bred and she became a rationalist in belief. Her first literary work was the finishing of a translation from the German of Strauss's *Life of Jesus*. She moved to London and became the sub-editor of *The Westminster Review*, to which she contributed. It was not till she was nearly forty that, at the suggestion of George Henry Lewes, she turned from philosophy to romance, and published the *Scenes of Clerical Life*, which in three poignant stories tells of the daily round of the clergy, their struggle, their poverty, their domestic life, their despondency and moments of inspiration. This book was followed by *Adam Bede*, which met with immediate recognition and was to secure for her a place among the great writers of the age. The finely drawn figure of the hero, the spiritual force of Dinah

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Morris, Mrs Poyser, the prosperous and kindly farmer's wife, a creation of genius—these provided the background for the tragedy of beautiful, wayward Hetty. *Adam Bede* was followed by *The Mill on the Floss*, in which the author draws in Maggie Tulliver such a girl as she herself had been, throbbing with life, at times at odds with her world, passionately loyal, hungry for love and understanding.

Many other novels came from George Eliot's pen, among them *Middlemarch*, one of her strongest works, and *Daniel Deronda*. She broke new ground in *Romola* and laid her scene in mediæval Italy in the days of Savonarola. But in this novel, because of the very labour and accuracy which she bestowed on her work, she failed to interest the general reader and it fell short of great achievement.

Her sister novelists Charlotte (1816-1855) and Emily Brontë (1818-1848), two of the daughters of a Yorkshire clergyman, the Rev. Patrick Brontë, have won by their lives and their work a peculiar niche in English literature. When Charlotte was a child of four her parents, with their six children, moved to Haworth on the Yorkshire moors, and in that quiet parsonage home they lived most of their short lives, and, all but one, Anne, found their last resting-place in the adjacent churchyard. The mother died a year after the removal and the children were tended by an aunt. The little girls were educated at the clergy orphan school at Cowan's Bridge, which Charlotte described from her own painful recollections in *Jane Eyre*. In that book she has given us, too, a touching portrait of her elder sister, under the name of Helen Burns. The two elder children, Maria and Elizabeth, sickened at school and came home to die.

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The other girls grew up and went into the world as governesses, and their only brother—the scapegrace Branwell—started life as a tutor. The Brontë sisters were peculiarly unfitted by nature and temperament to live as dependents in the houses of others, compelled to subdue their personalities to that of their employers. They were unhappy in their posts and yearned for the freedom of home. They fully realized the importance of supporting themselves and not being a burden on their father, yet they wanted to live with him and they schemed to start a school at the vicarage. But they were not as yet fully qualified for such an undertaking, and so Charlotte and Emily went to Brussels to study French. Emily pined, away from home, and returned within the year; Charlotte stayed on, and the two years' experience at Brussels had a great influence on her future career.

When she finally returned, Charlotte set to work to secure pupils, and issued a modest circular, but parents were unwilling to send their children to the bleak moorland parsonage, and no pupils came. With the failure of this project the sisters set to work to write novels. Charlotte's first venture, *The Professor*, submitted under the pseudonym of "Currer Bell," was refused, but the publishers to whom the manuscript was sent offered to consider another from the same pen. In response to this *Jane Eyre* was written, and the publisher's reader sat up long into the night absorbed in the passionate story of the poor governess, who was, as Charlotte had promised her sisters she should be, "as small and plain as myself." The novel came out and met with genuine appreciation, Thackeray being one of the first to acknowledge its extraordinary power.

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Emily Brontë's novel, *Wuthering Heights*, was accepted and published, but it did not win critical approval, and a long time was to pass ere it came to its own. She wrote of the moors, and of the rugged squires of "rough strong utterance, and harshly manifested passions and unbridled aversions." Emily, who has also written some fine verse, "in life and death, a chainless soul, with courage to endure," died when she was nine and twenty. Since her death her book has taken a high rank among the masterpieces of fiction. Swinburne said of it that "it may be true that not many will ever take it to their hearts; it is certain that those who do like it will like nothing much better in the whole world of poetry or prose."

After her sister's death, Charlotte, now the last survivor, for Branwell and Anne were dead, wrote other novels. *Shirley*, in which the character of the heroine is taken from her beloved sister; *Villette*, in which she tells of her life in Brussels. It is a love story springing from the heart of the quiet subdued governess, whose passionate soul, repressed by the nature of her calling, had found utterance.

After Charlotte's death her biography was written by her friend, Mrs Gaskell (1810-1865), herself a woman of letters who, in *Mary Barton*, tells of the life of the Lancashire cotton operatives, and in other novels shows her understanding of the working classes. Her most read book, however, is *Cranford*, a masterpiece of delicate humour, in which she gives us the trivial round of the kind, happy folk who lived out their little lives in pleasant social intercourse, in a quiet Cheshire town.

Another writer who treated of social problems was the Rev. Charles Kingsley (1819-1875). His hero in *Alton*



Thackeray



Thomas Hardy



Charlotte Brontë



George Eliot



Meredith



Stevenson

Great Victorian Novelists

Photo, Emery Walker, Ltd.

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Locke is a sweated tailor who becomes entangled in the Chartist movement. *Yeast* and *Two Years Ago* also deal with social questions studied in the light of Christianity, for he was a devout Churchman, and believed that what was wanted "to regenerate the world was not more of any system, good or bad, but simply more of the holy spirit of God." In *Westward Ho* he takes us back to the "spacious days of great Elizabeth," and in *Hypatia* tells of the early Christian Church in Alexandria.

Among the writers who, through the medium of the novel, sought to right the wrong of their day, was Charles Reade (1814-1884). In *It is Never Too Late to Mend* he drew attention to the state of our convict prisons, in *Hard Cash* to the abuses in private lunatic asylums. His greatest claim to enduring fame rests, however, on his one historical novel, *The Cloister and the Hearth*, which gives us a picture of the Continent during the early days of the Reformation.

R. D. Blackmore (1825-1900), though he wrote many novels, lives by one alone, *Lorna Doone*, with its setting in the wild Devonshire country: a book that won for its author enduring popularity.

Among lesser writers of the Victorian era who were much read in their day are Anthony Trollope (1815-1882) and Wilkie Collins (1824-1889). Trollope, in a series of charming tales, tells of the life of provincial England and has for his heroes the clergy and leading lights of quiet cathedral towns. He is seen at his best in the *Barchester* series. Wilkie Collins, the friend of Dickens, thrilled his readers by the mystery of *The Woman in White*, *The Moonstone* and other sensational stories.

With George Meredith (1828-1909) we come to one of our great masters of fiction. He was the son of a

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Plymouth outfitter, and began publishing when he was three and twenty. He has been called the "Browning of novelists" for the reason that his style is difficult and obscure, and he has never been, in any wide sense of the term, popular. Dr Garnett said truly of him that "no modern novelist demands so much intellect from his readers or gives them so much of his own." Meredith is a philosopher studying human life and the thoughts of men that lead to their actions. He has a keen love of the open air and a great sense of beauty. In *The Ordeal of Richard Feverel* he tells of the problem of a youth's education; in *Diana of the Crossways* he gives us a very fine and subtle study of a woman. He saw women as individual personalities, and did not make them, as Dickens and Thackeray too often did, conventional abstractions. Among his finest romances rank *The Adventures of Harry Richmond*, *Beauchamp's Career*, and *The Egoist*, the study of a selfish, self-centred man. "I should never forgive myself," wrote Robert Louis Stevenson, "if I forgot *The Egoist*, which of all novels I have read (and I have read thousands) stands in a place by itself."

Stevenson (1850-1894) was well qualified to appreciate his friend's work, for he had made a diligent study of literature, anxious to wrest the secret of the inspiration of the great masters. He had, he said, "played the sedulous ape" to them, not with the aim of imitating their modes of expression, but in order to learn his art as a writer. It was by diligent study that Stevenson himself became a master of prose. "I slogged at it day in and day out," he confessed. He wrote charming books on travel, *An Inland Voyage* and *Travels with a Donkey in the Cévennes*, delightful essays collected in

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Virginibus Puerisque, and *Familiar Studies of Men and Books*. His adventure story, *Treasure Island*, is one of the best in the language, and it shows that the heart of a boy beat within him. Among his fascinating novels are *The Master of Ballantrae*, *Catriona*, *The Strange Case of Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde*, the study of a dual personality, and the unfinished *Weir of Hermiston*, on which he was working in his distant home in Samoa at the time of his early death. Stevenson was even greater than his books, and his indomitable spirit lives on. "Help me to play the man," he prayed. His courageous struggle against physical weakness, his optimism and his living faith have helped many in their dark hours.

It is not possible to do more than mention a few names among living novel writers, of whom Mr Thomas Hardy stands in the front rank. In much of his work we feel that his outlook on life is pessimistic, that he sees tragedy awaiting so many human souls. This is strongly apparent in the powerful story, *Tess of the D'Urbervilles*. Some of his earlier work exhibits the author in a happier mood ; he writes of Nature as one can only write who has lived in close touch with her all his life. Thomas Hardy was born in Dorchester, and that part of England, under the name of Wessex, is the scene of many of his novels.

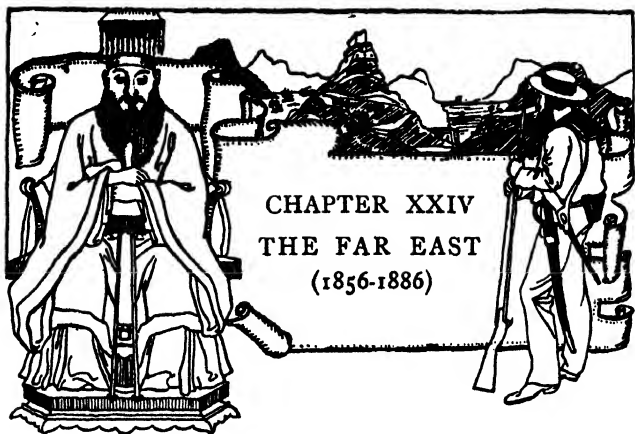
What Mr Hardy has done for the Wessex folk Sir J. M. Barrie started to do for the lowland Scots, and in *A Window in Thrums*, *The Little Minister* and other books, he draws on the memories of a boyhood spent in a small Scottish village. His plays are even more successful than his novels. His children's play, *Peter Pan*, has become a classic.

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Mr H. G. Wells, Mr Arnold Bennett and Mr Bernard Shaw will each teach future students of history something of the early twentieth century. They write of the life of to-day, though Mr Wells in some of his imaginative flights essays to describe, also, the life of the day after to-morrow. In *Kipps* and *The Wheels of Chance* he gives us studies of the shop assistant's life, one that he knows from personal experience. Mr Bennett, in *The Old Wives' Tale* and other works, takes us to the pottery district, and chronicles with minute accuracy of observation life of provincial England. Mr Shaw in his work is the ever tilting at conventional and accepted beliefs, and by his wit and his brilliant paradox in plays such as *John Bull's Other Island* and *Man and Superman* makes his audience look at things in a new light, and brings new life into old ideas by turning them upside down.

His brother dramatist, Sir Arthur Pinero, has in many notable plays shown us the social life of our time, and in *The Second Mrs Tanqueray*, *Iris*, *Letty*, and other dramas has drawn interesting studies of different types of women.

The student of military and Anglo-Indian life will go to Mr Rudyard Kipling, who both in prose and verse has reproduced something of the martial spirit of our day. He has published some fine poems inspired by the greatness of England, for he is the poet of imperialism. His *Recessional*, written at the time of England's gloom during the Boer War, will probably have an enduring place in our literature. In fiction he has written such highly imaginative work as the *Jungle Books*, in which, by a rare art, he gives individuality to the animals and makes them talk for themselves. He has also written volumes of short stories, which include little masterpieces such as *The Drums of the Fore and Aft*.



IN 1856 we became involved in a war with China. A Chinese trading vessel, the *Arrow*, manned by Chinese, but carrying the British flag, was seized by the Chinese Government, and the crew taken prisoners as pirates. This was an insult to our country and our flag, and the British representative at Peking demanded an apology. This was refused, and as a consequence war broke out between England and China. Lord Elgin was sent out to see if he could settle the quarrel, and as a result of his endeavours a treaty was signed at Tientsin. The Chinese, however, refused to ratify it within the year, and hostilities and negotiations went on for some three years till in 1860, by the Treaty of Peking, peace was secured.

Ever since the disastrous retreat from Kabul in 1842 Afghanistan had been left to manage its own affairs, and the rival claimants to the throne to fight

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for mastery among themselves. Sher Ali, after ousting his rivals, succeeded his father as Amir in 1863. He was given to understand by the Indian Government that he could only retain the friendship of England if he refrained from cultivating that of any foreign power—the power in view being, of course, Russia. Sir John Lawrence was Viceroy of India, and he insisted that Russia should be informed in “firm and courteous” language that she must not interfere with Afghanistan. Sher Ali was offered £60,000 and 3500 muskets as evidence of our good intentions, but he was not disposed to accept friendly overtures. Lord Mayo, a wise and statesmanlike governor, succeeded Lord Lawrence in 1869, but his term was short, for he fell by the hand of an assassin, and Lord Northbrook followed him in 1872. Lord Northbrook had to deal with one of the terrible famines which have played havoc with provinces in India and taken toll of the lives of hundreds of thousands of natives. By the opening of relief works, the importation of grain, and the administration of a fund collected in England for the purpose, the worst of the calamity was tided over, and when the rainy season came the danger of a return of the famine in the following year was at an end.

To Lord Northbrook also fell the honour of welcoming the Prince of Wales on his visit to India in 1875. The Prince, who took £40,000 worth of presents for the Indian princes in his baggage, was received with all the honour due to the heir to the English throne, and carried back with him a splendid collection of gifts, said to be worth £500,000, from the Queen's Indian subjects. Disraeli was at that time in office, and one of his imperialistic measures was the proclamation of Queen

THE FAR EAST

Victoria as Empress of India at a magnificent Durbar at Delhi in January 1877.

Lord Northbrook resigned in January 1876, and Disraeli appointed a viceroy of his own imperialistic way of thinking, Lord Lytton, son of the novelist. A new spirit was to animate our negotiations with Afghanistan. Russian aggression was feared on the north, where the River Oxus had been accepted as the boundary; on the south a scheme was afoot to establish what was called a "scientific frontier," which, by taking a slice off the Amir's territory, would give England command of the mountain passes. Lord Lytton approached the Amir with friendly offers, but to his disappointment found that Sher Ali, who had been offended by the practical refusal of his request for a guarantee of English help if Afghanistan were attacked, was unwilling to negotiate, and received a Russian mission at Kabul. England was roused to indignation and alarm. Russia once the paramount influence in Afghanistan would mean the Indian Empire in constant danger of attack. War was declared, General Sir Donald Stewart crossed the frontier and occupied Kandahar, General Sir Samuel Browne, after driving away the Afghans, entered Jelalabad, and General Roberts occupied the Kuran valley.

In the midst of these warlike operations Sher Ali died, and was succeeded by his son, Yakub Khan, who signed the Treaty of Gandamak, by which a British minister was to be allowed to take up residence at Kabul and the "scientific frontier" was to be recognized. The Amir in return for his compliancy was to be protected against foreign invasion and to receive a yearly grant.

We had not fully learnt our lesson from the disasters

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of 1842. Once more we trusted to Afghan promises, and Sir Louis Cavagnari, with his suite and a guard of soldiers, was sent to take up his post in the Residency at Kabul. He accepted the office without a murmur, though his heart may well have failed him. For five weeks all went well, and then a tragedy happened. Wild Afghan tribes, incensed at the idea of English overlordship, surrounded the Residency. Cavagnari and his suite fought gallantly, but were killed to a man ; those who did not fall in the open perished in the flames of the burning building. Yakub Khan wrote hypocritical letters regretting that he had been unable to avert this disaster, though it was probable that he had instigated it. General Roberts, who had returned to India, was sent, with a force of 5500 men, to avenge the massacre of his countrymen. He fought his way successfully to Kabul, where he punished the murderers and received the submission of Yakub Khan, who was exiled. But with his small force he did not feel equal to holding the town and retired to Sherpur, encountering many attacks on the way from the Afghan tribes. On the arrival of reinforcements he was able once more to occupy Kabul. The policy was now to evacuate Afghanistan, where rival claimants were contending for the empty throne. One of them, Abdurrahman, with a powerful army attacked Kandahar, then in the hands of General Primrose and a small force. It seemed as though the disaster of 1842 must be repeated. General Roberts with 10,000 men, British, Gurkhas and Sikhs, was ordered to go to the relief of the town, 320 miles distant from Kabul. He started on this march through a hostile, wild, desolate country, where at any time his column might be overwhelmed, and for

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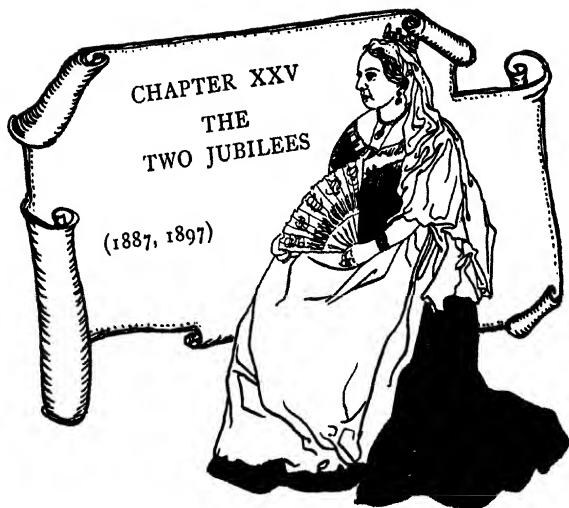
three weeks no news was known of him. Then the besieged garrison heard the sound of fighting outside the walls. Roberts had overcome all difficulties, and cut his way through the Afghans. He now entered the town, after having performed one of the most gallant marches in military history (August 1880). When in 1892 he was made a baron he took for his title the name of the town he had saved. In 1901 he was raised a step in the peerage and was created an earl.

The Marquis of Ripon, who succeeded Lord Lytton in 1880, insisted on the withdrawal of British forces, and the evacuation of Afghanistan was complete by April 1881. For a time Indian affairs ceased to focus the attention of the country; the viceroy was able to devote himself to internal reform, and, with statesmanlike judgment, was anxious to associate educated natives with the Government. With this in view he gave native district magistrates and session judges power to try European offenders who came into their courts. Although fair play was assured by the stipulation that the prisoner had a right to be tried by jury, of which at least half the members were white men, this measure was extremely unpopular with the ruling race. Lord Ripon also appointed a commission with a view to improving the education of the natives. Of all his reforms, the one he was most proud of was the repeal of the Vernacular Press Act. Previous to this date, native newspapers were subject to an official censorship, and thus native writers were compelled to consider the prejudices of the censor rather than their own. Lord Ripon wisely realized that the newspaper was a safety valve for discontent, and that when men were denied this outlet they sought

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other and less legitimate ways of expressing their grievances.

During the viceroyalty of his successor, Lord Dufferin, who was appointed in 1886, the remaining part of Burma, which had been under the rule of the bad, and probably mad, King Theebaw, who had been intriguing with the French, was annexed to our Indian Empire.



QUEEN VICTORIA tasted unpopularity once during her reign. Some years after the Prince Consort's death her complete retirement from social life, and her prolonged absences from London, for she was happiest at Balmoral, led to a good deal of criticism in the Press. She attended to the duties of State assiduously, but it was thought that she should show herself oftener to her people and hold her Courts at Buckingham Palace. This feeling passed away, and as the years of her reign lengthened her popularity increased.

An outburst of intense loyalty greeted the Queen when, on 21st June 1887, she completed fifty years of her reign. A great Jubilee celebration was held, in

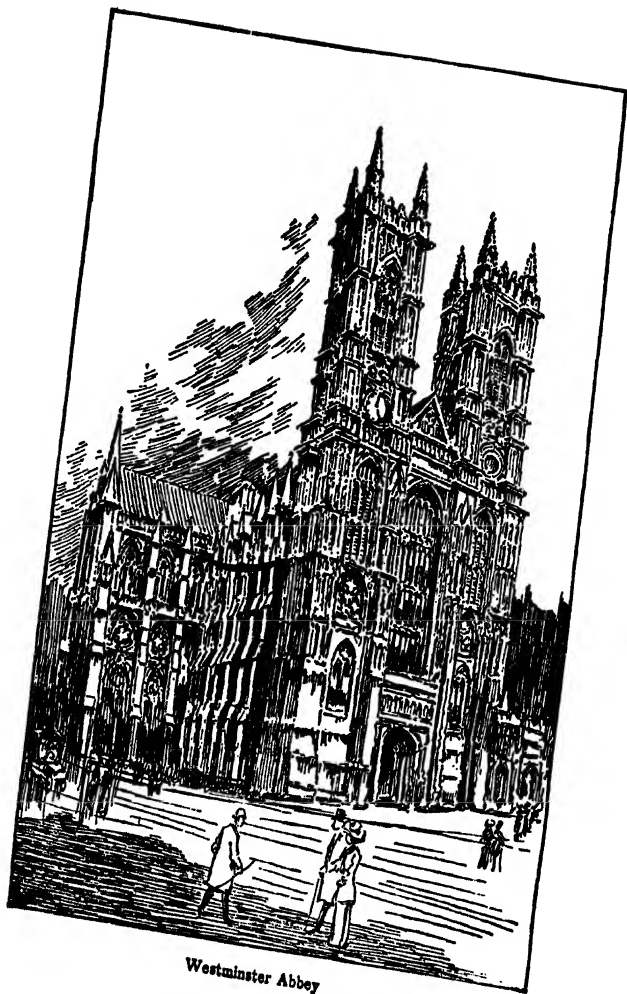
FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V*

which Great Britain, India and the colonies took part. Ireland alone refused to join in the rejoicings. It was a time of strife between the Irish Nationalist members, who were striving to prevent the passing of a rigorous Coercion Bill by the Conservative Government, and though the Irish people as a whole were loyal to the Queen, there was great bitterness between them and our English Parliament.

London had never been so gay ; with Venetian masts • brilliantly festooned with flowers, flags flying, mottoes of loyalty spanning the road, it was a city of splendour adorned to greet its queen. She was escorted on her progress from Buckingham Palace to the Abbey by kings and princes, and among them was the noble figure of her son-in-law, the German Prince Imperial, and his son, the present Emperor of Germany. The Abbey, glowing with the colour of brilliant uniforms, glittering with gems from coroneted heads, was thronged with ten thousand spectators. As, thus honoured by her subjects, the Queen passed to the throne, she must have recalled that Abbey fifty years before, when in the glory of her girlhood she was crowned. After a short service the Queen returned to the Palace, whence she wrote a touching letter of gratitude to her subjects for the welcome they had accorded her :

"I am anxious to express to my people my warm thanks for the kind, and more than kind, reception I met with on going to, and returning from, Westminster Abbey with all my children and grandchildren. ,

"The enthusiastic reception I met with there, as well as on all these eventful days in London, as well as in Windsor, on the occasion of my Jubilee, has touched me most deeply. It has shown that the labour and



Westminster Abbey

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anxiety of fifty long years—twenty-two of which I spent in unclouded happiness, shared and cheered by my beloved husband, while an equal number were full of sorrows and trials, borne without his sheltering arm and wise help, have been appreciated by my people.

“ This feeling, and the sense of duty towards my dear country and subjects, who are so inseparably bound up with my life, will encourage me in my task—often a very difficult and arduous one—during the remainder of my life.

“ The wonderful order preserved on this occasion, and the good behaviour of the enormous multitudes assembled, merits my highest admiration.

“ That God may protect and abundantly bless my country is my fervent prayer.”

New coinage, in which the girlish head of Victoria was replaced by one of her as she then appeared, was struck in her honour. The Imperial Institute, in which the Prince of Wales took great interest, was built to commemorate this jubilee, and it is a permanent memorial of a closer interest in the Empire. Evidence of the growth of this had already been shown by a Colonial and Indian Exhibition held in London the year before, to which 5,500,000 visitors had flocked. The presence of so many representatives of our colonies in London led to the holding of the First Colonial Conference in May 1887. Lord Salisbury, then Prime Minister, in his address to the Conference said that he hoped it would be the first of a long series of such meetings. Matters of imperial interest, such as military defence and rates of postage, were discussed, with the object of bringing the colonies and the mother country in closer touch with one another.

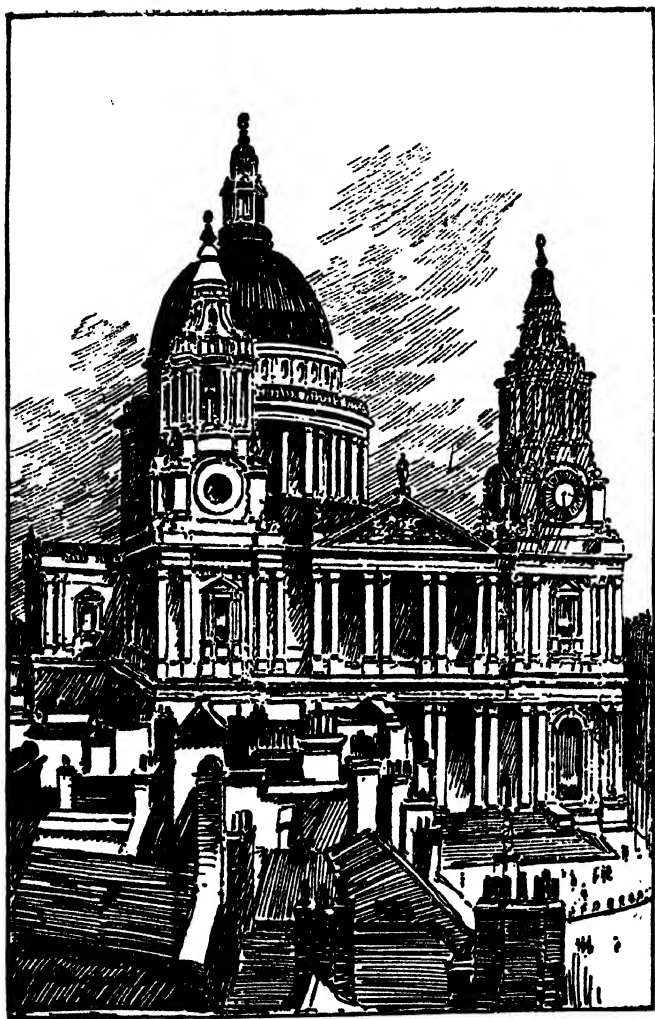
THE TWO JUBILEES

Ten years later Queen Victoria celebrated her Diamond Jubilee (22nd June 1897), which was made the occasion of a great imperial festival. Mr Chamberlain, Secretary of State for the Colonies, invited the premiers of the self-governing colonies to be present, foreseeing that it would be "a most valuable opportunity for the discussion of many subjects of the greatest interest to the Empire, such as commercial union, colonial defence, representation of the colonies, legislation with regard to emigrants from Asia and elsewhere and other similar subjects." And this led to the second colonial conference.

On this occasion the Queen went in procession to St Paul's, and there, without the great cathedral, offered thanks for her long reign. The streets were garlanded and festooned with even more lavish splendour than ten years before. The prognostications of possible disaster arising from the vast crowds that were expected to flock into London were so insistent that the police closed the bridges at midnight of 21st June.

Lord Roberts at the head of the colonial contingent rode in the rear of the procession, followed by bronzed troops from Canada, New Zealand, the Cape, and New South Wales; native troops from the Niger and the Gold Coast; Maoris from New Zealand, Zaptieks from Cyprus, Hausas, black as ebony, yellow Chinamen from Hong-Kong, Dyaks from Borneo; "new types, new realms at every couple of yards, an anthropological museum, a living gazetteer of the British Empire." It was a lesson in Empire to the sightseers on the crowded stands and pavements.

The object of greatest interest was, however, the Queen herself, and at every point of the route she



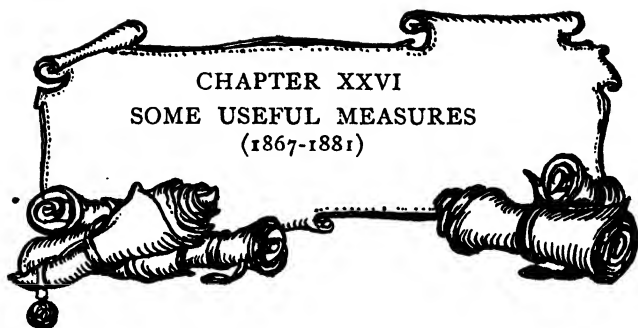
St Paul's Cathedral

THE TWO JUBILEES

received tributes of her people's love such as had never before been given to any sovereign. She rode in her state coach, drawn by eight cream-coloured horses, accompanied by her children and grandchildren, and representatives of nearly every kingdom and republic in the world. Clad in black, adorned with grey and silver, she was a simple figure in so gorgeous a setting. Bands were massed around the steps of the cathedral, and white-robed choristers, grouped ready to bear their part.

The Archbishops of York and Canterbury, with other bishops and clergy, waited to receive the Queen. From the throats of the choristers rose the strains of thanksgiving, and after the *Te Deum* came the Old Hundredth and the National Anthem, the refrain of which was taken up by tens of thousands of voices. The Archbishop of Canterbury pronounced a blessing, and the procession re-formed to wend its way through the shabbier streets of South London that the Queen's poorer subjects might also greet her on that great day. As she neared Buckingham Palace once more, the members of the House of Commons greeted her with the National Anthem and her eyes filled with tears.

For three days central London was a blaze of illumination. Bonfires flared from country hill-tops, the naval ships off Spithead lit up the seas. The Queen's message of gratitude was flashed to her subjects in all parts of the world : " From my heart I thank my beloved people, may God bless them."



THE Reform Bill of 1867 was designated by Lord Derby "a leap in the dark," but, he added: "I have the greatest confidence in the sound sense of my fellow-countrymen." That confidence was justified in the domestic legislation of the next twenty years. During the greater part of the period Gladstone and Disraeli stand out in strong contrast as leaders in national affairs, each with his work to do and his aim in view. Both realized that, in Palmerston's phrase, they must now "play more to the gallery than to the stalls," and that legislation would have to concern itself with the condition of the people.

England was painfully aware that she must "educate her masters" but it was too late to begin with the parents. The new generation, if we were to hold our own among the nations of the world, must be educated. In New York one child in three was instructed, in Germany one in six, in England one in fourteen; which meant that 1,000,000 children of school age were not being educated at all. The existing schools were often

SOME USEFUL MEASURES

quite inefficient; sometimes a Bible and a stick were the teacher's only provision for instruction. Uneducated themselves, they could impart little to their pupils. The Elementary Education Bill of 1870 was piloted through Parliament by W. E. Forster. It aimed at making education compulsory and covering the country with good schools. The voluntary schools were to be aided by Government grants, and where they were inefficient, School Boards were to be set up, with power to levy a rate and erect suitable buildings. The difficulty at once arose as to the religious teaching to be given, as the children attending schools would belong to different sects, and this was met by an amendment, called after Mr Cowper Temple, who introduced it, which provided that no dogmatic religious instruction was to be given in rate-supported schools. The Bible was to be taught without dogma, and it was left to the Churches to teach the children their own particular creeds. It was not till twenty-one years later (1891) that education in elementary schools was made free and parents were no longer required to pay fees.

Up to this time all the coveted Civil Service appointments had been reserved for the sons of influential men who could obtain nominations, but with better education for the country's children it was necessary to give them chances of rising in life, and in August 1871 appointments to the Civil Service, except to the Foreign Office, were thrown open to competition.

A stronghold of privilege was attacked in a Bill brought in by the Secretary for War, Edward Cardwell, for reorganizing the army and abolishing the purchase of commissions. Up to this time officers had bought their commissions, and had had to pay something for every

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step of promotion, and though the prices were regulated, much larger sums than the authorized amounts were demanded and paid. An officer on leaving the service could sell his commission. It was not doubted that able men had entered the army in this way, but it had also admitted many incompetents and shut out aspiring soldiers who, but for their lack of means, would have done honour to the service. Military men detested Cardwell and his Bill and the House of Lords intended to delay its passage into law. Gladstone, however, had a surprise in store for them. He declared that "since Army purchase had been created by Royal Warrant, it could be rendered illegal by the same means," and he advised the Queen to issue a new warrant abolishing purchase. This she immediately did. All that was left of the Bill, now that the main point was settled, was to provide compensation for those who would lose money through the abolition of purchase, and this Bill became law in 1871, competitive examination replacing the old system.

In the same year, by the University Tests Bill, men of all creeds were allowed to compete for the prizes of the universities, instead of only members of the Church of England. There could be no valid argument against such a reform, and men of honest convictions had no reason to fear associating with those who held different views.

With the increased electorate it became important to abolish the scandals at the hustings where candidates were elected for Parliament and electors openly declared their choice. Voting by ballot was substituted, and men were enabled to register their votes secretly, without fear of getting into trouble with employers who held different political views.

• SOME USEFUL MEASURES

In 1871 Sir John Lubbock earned the gratitude of millions of workers when he introduced his Bank Holiday Bill, by which four days a year were set apart as public holidays.

At this time there was one class of worker whose trade was especially hazardous. Those "who went down to the sea in ships and occupied their business in great waters" had not only to fear hidden rocks, wind and waves, but too often the greed of their employers. Ships that were quite unseaworthy would be heavily insured, overloaded with cheap cargo, manned with needy sailors, and sent on their perilous voyage to perish in the waves.

The sailors found a champion in Samuel Plimsoll, who threw all his energies into a Bill designed to protect their lives. The Bill was delayed in its passage through Parliament, and in an outburst of anger he threatened to "unmask the villains who have sent brave men to their death." He had to apologize later for his intemperate language, but his noble rage had roused the country, and the Bill fixing a load-line for ships and regulating their cargo passed into law (August 1875). In 1880 factory workers were protected by the Employers Liability Act. In recent years similar legislation has been extended to many trades and callings, and to-day the health and safety of the workman are guarded by the most stringent rules and regulations, and under the



Samuel Plimsoll

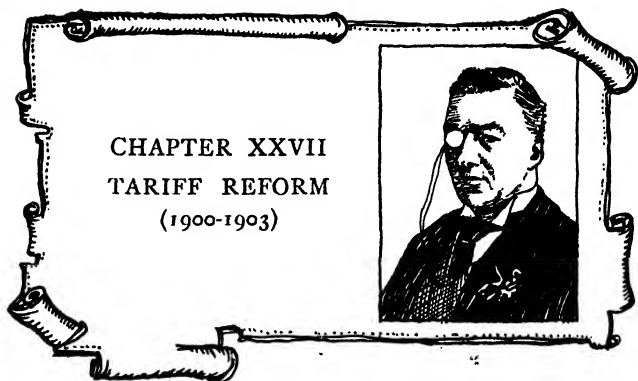
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Workmen's Compensation Act, employers are responsible to their workpeople for injuries, whatsoever their nature or however incurred, received while at work.

Both the Liberal and Conservative governments were responsible for social legislation. The Conservatives lost a great leader in the House of Commons when, in 1876, Disraeli passed into the House of Lords as the Earl of Beaconsfield. In his farewell speech to his constituents he well sums up his aim in public life :

" Not insensible to the principle of progress, I have endeavoured to reconcile change with that respect for tradition which is one of the main elements of our social strength. And in external affairs I have endeavoured to develop and strengthen our Empire, believing that a combination of achievement and responsibility elevates the character and condition of a people."

He died on the 19th April 1881, and Lord Salisbury in his tribute to him in the House of Lords declared that " zeal for the greatness of England was the passion of his life."



CHAPTER XXVII
TARIFF REFORM
(1900-1903)



THE case for and against Tariff Reform in its simplest statement would be something like this :

A man buys a pair of boots for thirteen shillings, but finds later that they are foreign-made boots, and that if he had bought English boots of the same quality he would have had to pay fifteen shillings. It occurs to him that if the foreign boots were artificially made dearer, say by an import duty of three shillings, the price would go up to sixteen shillings, and the English boots at fifteen shillings would then have no effective competitors in the home market. The imposition of a duty would constitute what is called "Protection" for the English bootmaker, and at first glance it seems all loss to the man who buys the boots. He finds consolation, however, in the reflection that he is helping to employ more bootmakers in England, and that probably benefit may extend to

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him in the direction of more work and increased wages in his own trade. This, shortly, is the argument for Protection for its own sake.

The argument against it is that the increase of price brought about by the artificial elimination of competition must come out of the pocket of the English consumer, and that consequently he will have more money to spend on other articles if prices are not thus increased. In other words, money has a greater purchasing power in the Free Trade state. This, the opponent of Protection contends, stimulates home industries and, together with the comparatively low cost of almost every article of commerce, which is the result of Free Trade, enables them to compete successfully with foreign manufactures in colonial and foreign markets, the result being that employment is more abundant.

And in any case it is desirable to direct the energies of home manufacturers to the production of articles which they are equipped naturally to manufacture better or more cheaply than others. This, shortly, is the argument for "Free Trade."

But suppose the foreigner, as he generally does, treats most of the goods that we export to him in the way that the tariff reformer proposes to treat the foreign boots and shuts them out by a tariff? Ought we not to attempt to force him to remove or reduce his hostile duties by applying the same treatment to him? The policy which embodies an affirmative answer to this question is known as "Retaliation."

And when the foreigner has suffered enough under the process of retaliation and comes to terms by consenting to an adjustment between our hostile duties

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and his own we arrive at something like fair play all round, or, in other words, "Reciprocity."

Meantime, since we cannot hope for any immediate conversion of the world to universal Free Trade, why not, asks the Tariff Reformer, help our colonies, admitting, let us say, their food stuffs on terms which would give them an advantage over foreign states like Russia and the United States, from which we now obtain our chief supplies? This, even at the cost to ourselves of the enhanced price of wheat which "a slight duty" on corn might necessitate, would be sound policy, since it would tend to make the home market more valuable to the colonial farmer and so would bind the Empire more closely together. Canada, for example, would have a larger market for her somewhat dearer corn, or, in other words, would receive a "Preference." There would, also, be no possibility of some other nation making a bargain with one or other of our colonies which would be detrimental to English trade and which we might be powerless to prevent so long as we remain a Free Trade country with no Preference to offer in exchange.

These, very simply put, are the arguments on which are based the rival theories with regard to Tariff Reform and Free Trade. Yet simple as they seem, they become enormously complicated in their application to the colossal affairs of nations and of markets throughout the world. For example, they take no note of such important questions as banking and transport, which greatly affect the commercial prosperity of England.

Since 1846 England has been, progressively, a Free Trade country—that is, while we tax some articles as they enter our ports, we admit most quite free, and where taxes are levied, this is for revenue only, not

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for protection of home industries—*i.e.* not for the purpose of shutting foreign goods out of our market.

With the dawn of the twentieth century few English institutions seemed more fixed than Free Trade. Questions, however, were now to arise in men's minds as to the advisability of our fiscal policy. The vast bulk of the nation was certainly not prepared to consider so great a change as would be involved in the adoption of Tariff Reform when, on 15th May 1903, Mr Joseph Chamberlain made the question one of practical politics by advocating a scheme of Protection involving taxation of food and preference for the colonies, largely, as he declared, with the object of promoting the federation of the colonies with the mother country. The scheme was received with strenuous condemnation by the Liberals, and it alarmed some of the leading members of the Unionist party, not only because they disbelieved in Protection, but also because they foresaw that it would make the party very unpopular in the country and give a battle-cry to the Liberals that would ensure their victory at the polls.

Four months later Mr Chamberlain retired from the Government in order that he might have greater freedom in advocating his new policy. The Duke of Devonshire and other members of the Cabinet who disagreed with him resigned at about the same time. Mr Balfour, who had succeeded Lord Salisbury as Premier, was willing to support the agitation in a tentative and cautious way.

The issue was now fairly joined, and the controversy was destined to become one of the most important in our political annals and without a parallel in our history since the great struggle for Free Trade.

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In the course of the struggle Mr Chamberlain himself was prostrated by an illness that has apparently withdrawn him permanently from political life. It was a war of giants and his physical strength proved unequal to the strain. The House of Commons, the scene of many of his triumphs, now sees him only, when he attends, a pathetic figure, on the assembling of a new Parliament, to sign the Roll as a member of the House of Commons—or rather to witness the signature written for him by his son: for Birmingham continues to elect him as a token of grateful affection for his public services.

Mr Chamberlain has been one of the greatest political forces of his time. Born in a comparatively humble station, and with scant advantages of fortune other than those he owed to his own exertions, he first entered public life in connexion with municipal affairs in Birmingham, and distinguished himself by initiating and carrying out great civic improvements. This led him to a seat in Parliament, where he soon showed extraordinary powers as a master of debate, with an eloquence marked by great lucidity of exposition and scathing powers of retort. At first an ardent Radical, he compiled a "programme" for that party which was very far in advance of the ordinary conceptions of the Liberalism of the day. In 1886, however, he broke away from Mr Gladstone's Government, in which he was a member of the Cabinet, on the question of Home Rule, and became a leader of the Unionist party, which is so called because the Liberals who seceded from the party at that time united with the Conservatives to oppose any dissolution or rupture of the legislative union of Great Britain and Ireland. No

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English statesman has done more to foster the growth of the imperial idea in relation to our colonies, and he gave practical proof of his sincerity when in 1895 he chose the Colonial Office in Lord Salisbury's ministry. This office had hitherto been considered of comparatively minor importance and at that time Mr Chamberlain's influence in the party would have entitled him to command one of the most important posts in the Government.

Mr Chamberlain's views upon Tariff Reform may be gathered from the following extracts from his speeches :

"We are losing both ways. We are losing our foreign markets, because whenever we begin to do a trade the door is slammed in our faces with a whacking tariff. . . . And if that was not enough, these same foreigners who shut us out invade our markets and take the work out of the hands of our working people and leave us doubly injured."

"Dumping is the placing of the surplus of any manufacture in any country which is able to take it. Dumping takes place when the country which adopts it has a production which is larger than its own demand. Not being able to dispose of its surplus at home, it dumps it somewhere else. The United Kingdom is the only country where this can be carried on successfully, because we are the only country that keeps open ports. Every other great country immediately puts on a tariff to keep out these dumped articles."

"I propose to meet the foreigner with his own weapons. I propose to treat him as he does us, until he treats us better. And I propose to treat the colonies better than we have done hitherto."

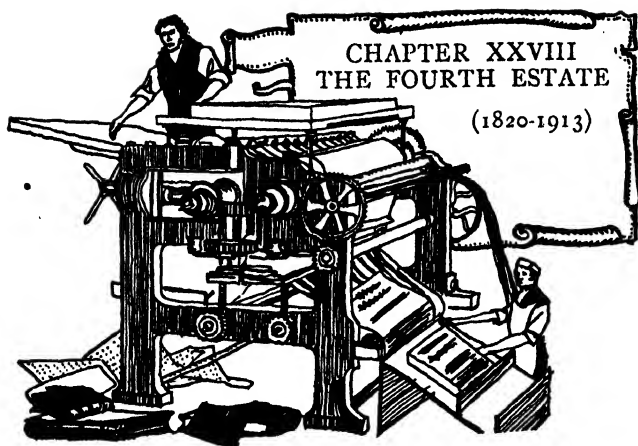
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"I hope to give you more employment. What is the whole problem as it affects the working classes? It is all contained in one word—employment. Cheap food, a higher standard of living, higher wages; all these things, important as they are, are contained in the word employment."

"If you want to give preference to the Colonies you must put a tax on food."

"I want to have free exchange with all nations of the world; but if they will not exchange with me then I am not a Free Trader at any price."

The proposal to tax food has been fatal to the Tariff Reform agitation so far, and at every General Election since Mr Chamberlain first outlined his policy in 1903 it has been expressly or implicitly condemned. Working men dread the return of the dear loaf of their fathers of the "hungry forties," and have not so far been converted by the arguments of those who tell them that under the different conditions that prevail to-day a tax upon wheat not grown in the British Empire would not cause an increase in the cost of food beyond what they could easily afford because of the predicted rise of wages. The stars in their courses seem to have fought against Tariff Reform by giving us a succession of exceptionally prosperous years. The issue, however, has still to be fought to a conclusion. Tariff Reform is supported by a great party and by powerful interests, and is still in the forefront of the programme of the united Imperialist and Protectionist party.



KING, Lords and Commons are frequently referred to as the three estates of the realm, and the twentieth century sees a considerable diminution in the importance of the second of the three, while signs are not wanting that the third estate is waning in political prestige. During the Victorian period another power has arisen which has come to be known as the Fourth Estate.

Prior to the nineteenth century newspapers were the luxury of the few and consequently were of small importance. The first to be published daily was *The Daily Courant*, which made its appearance in 1702, to be followed, two years later, by *The Daily Review*, which was started by Daniel Defoe, who has been called the father of English journalism.

Some eighty years later, in 1785, John Walter published *The Daily Universal Register*, which under its

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later name of *The Times* was to become the leading daily paper of the world for a long period.

The Times, as it has become familiar to the present generation, is of course the product of evolution. We can hardly think of such a humorously satirical paragraph as the following in connexion with the dignified and autocratic journal, dubbed by our fathers "the Thunderer." The item in question appeared in 1801.

"A bye courier is just arrived to inform us that there were no green peas in Grosvenor Square during the whole evening ; and that there was not asparagus enough for the company."

The Times grew to be a great English institution under the able management of three generations of John Walters, and of the famous J. T. Delane, who was editor from 1841 to 1877. During his time important departures were made, including the sending to the front of the first war correspondent. At the time of the Crimean War the circulation reached 50,000 copies a day.

Perhaps the most important factor in the development of the newspaper during the nineteenth century was the invention of the electric telegraph. Less than eighty years ago it was considered a great feat on the part of *The Times* to obtain special news from Glasgow, brought by relays of post horses, at the rate of fifteen miles an hour.

The great cost of cables from abroad led to the institution of agencies organized to supply foreign news to newspapers. The first of these, and the most famous, is still known by the name of its founder, Baron Julius de Reuter, a Prussian Government courier,

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whose position had enabled him to form connexions with important personages at the various courts and who started his agency in 1858.

The universal belief in the infallibility of *The Times* received a rude shock in 1886, when it was victimized by a forger named Pigott, who induced the journal to publish a series of sensational letters over the signature of Parnell. In more recent times the great journal has been criticized for allowing a syndicate to use its name in advertising an edition of the *Encyclopædia Britannica* which was offered for sale upon a system of payment by instalments.

In its early days *The Times* cost on occasions as much as eightpence a copy, and many had to be content with hiring a copy or purchasing one after the lapse of several days. This, to many, prohibitive cost was due to various causes, one of which was the newspaper stamp duty, which was gradually reduced from fourpence to one penny per copy and was repealed in 1855. Then there was a tax on advertisements, abolished in 1853, and a paper duty, repealed in 1861. With these hindrances removed, and the discovery of cheaper processes of papermaking, the day of the universal newspaper for the masses drew near. The great organ of the upper classes, however, was not to lead the way. For fifty years or more *The Times* maintained its price of threepence per copy, and has only quite recently reduced its price to twopence per copy. This, however, can hardly be considered a descent from its proud isolation, since its competitors have long since demanded no more than at the most one penny.

Among the first dailies to be published at a penny

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was *The Daily Telegraph*, founded in 1855. Its politics were first Liberal and later Conservative. It was for long the favourite journal of the middle classes, and boasted the largest circulation in the world.

The oldest London daily paper still in existence is *The Morning Post*, founded in 1772. It has always chronicled the doings of the aristocracy and has devoted its columns to literary interests. Amongst others, Coleridge, Southey and Wordsworth contributed to it in its early days.

The interests of Liberalism have been served by *The Daily News* and *The Daily Chronicle*. Charles Dickens was the first editor of the former, and the paper has always stood for freedom and has supported many unpopular causes.

The actual cost of production of such a newspaper as *The Daily Telegraph* often exceeded the penny at which it was sold, but the ever-increasing revenues from advertisements enabled publishers to remain solvent and in 1892 two morning papers, *The Morning* and *The Morning Leader*, were brought out at a halfpenny. Four years later, in 1896, a more serious competitor, *The Daily Mail*, was launched by Lord Northcliffe, then Mr Alfred Harmsworth, as a halfpenny morning paper, fully equipped to compete on equal terms with its great contemporaries published at one penny. Other things besides advertisements made this venture possible. Machinery had been largely improved. The hand-setting of type had given way to mechanical setting by the linotype machine, which is operated much as a clerk uses the typewriter and almost as quickly. The touching of keys "assemble" matrices (moulds), from which a line of type is cast.

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Still more important was the invention of the rotary printing machine. *The Times* was first printed by steam in 1814, when in place of an output of 450 copies an hour it was able to produce 1100 sheets an hour. As time went on the printing machine working on the principle of a flat type surface was greatly improved, but the new rotary principle introduced possibilities which revolutionized newspaper production and by its aid a number of *The Daily Mail*, containing eight pages, is turned out at the rate of 132,000 copies an hour.

The success of *The Daily Mail* compelled *The Daily News* and *The Daily Chronicle* to reduce their price, and the halfpenny morning newspaper is the greatest marvel of cheapness in the world.

Lord Northcliffe has been called the Napoleon of journalism, and he invites the comparison by the boldness of his aims and the magnitude of his organization no less than by the fact that he controls many newspapers besides *The Daily Mail*, and among them may now be numbered *The Times*. By the intuition of genius he saw that the Education Act of 1870 had added enormously to the number of potential readers of the daily newspaper, and in inducing these people to take an interest in public affairs he greatly increased the power of the Press. —

The necessity of catering for the million—and *The Daily Mail* circulation frequently touches that figure—led to many innovations which have now become features in most of our popular newspapers. Amongst these may be mentioned the serial story, columns for feminine readers, topical illustrations, etc.

The newspaper of to-day presents a very different

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appearance from that of the dignified and "heavy" journal of fifty years ago. Very little space is now devoted to reports of parliamentary debates. Leading articles are much shorter. Special articles are signed. Information on every conceivable subject is given in a bright, concentrated form. Writers of standing contribute attractive articles intended for the many, and through the opportunities thus provided the taste for reading something better than the novelette is being fostered in those who might not otherwise come into contact with literary style. Everywhere is apparent the reference to the interests of all sections of the community so that the newspaper, far from being a luxury, is regarded as a necessity and is looked for in the home.

A universal demand such as this naturally encourages effort to supply the largest possible areas, and the great London newspapers, by employing special trains and motor vans, obtain regular subscribers in all the great English centres of population. While the rest of the world is sleeping these trains and motors are rushing at express speed to supply the most outlying parts of the country.

The Press is, indeed, the very embodiment of speed. This age is one of bustle and hurry, but nowhere is this more apparent than in the production of the great newspaper. News flashed by telegraph or wireless, or sent by telephone, appears in the evening paper in an extraordinarily short space of time after the events have taken place. At a great football match the crowd is met at the gates of the ground by boys with newspapers which tell of the result witnessed only a few minutes before. A lengthy report written

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on a grand stand appears in a newspaper which may be purchased half-an-hour later in the streets.

Wide as is the field opened up by the special newspaper express trains, *The Daily Mail* seeks to reach a still more extended public by printing special editions at distant centres, such as Paris and Manchester.

Although the great newspaper depends upon the great mechanical inventions which have made possible the rapidity of transport and communication now so essential, it is as much as ever dependent upon the men and women who serve it in every part of the world. The great importance of the Press gives to the foreign correspondent of a great newspaper almost the dignity and standing of an ambassador. In the past such men as *The Times* correspondents in Paris and Peking, M. de Blowitz and Dr Morrison, have made history, and their services have been as valuable to their country as to the newspaper they served.

Perhaps the value of the Press was never better shown than when *The Times* sent out to the Crimea the first war correspondent—Mr, afterwards Sir, William H. Russell. His stirring dispatches telling of the miserable state of the sick and wounded induced Miss Florence Nightingale to undertake her mission of mercy, and ever since war has been shorn of some of its horror. In every campaign since the Crimea the war correspondent has been almost an official part of military organization, and people living quietly at home have been enabled to follow the fortunes of war in wonderful pen-pictures sent from the front at immense cost, and often by means of venturesome deeds and hair-breadth escapes which have made thrilling reading when the stories have been published. Archibald



Printing "The Daily Mail"

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Forbes of *The Daily News* greatly distinguished himself in the Franco-Prussian War of 1871, and G. W. Steevens of *The Daily Mail* is still remembered for his brilliant descriptions of the battles in the Soudan.

The war correspondent was allowed little scope in the war between Russia and Japan, and during the Turkish-Bulgarian campaign of 1912-1913 he was little more than a prisoner of war. The possibility of the transmission of news to a distant point and back again to the enemy within a few hours makes the correspondent very unwelcome at the front, and it is probable that his day has passed.

The newspaper is much more than a chronicler of events and an advocate for a political party. Owing to the enormous circulations due to the causes above mentioned, the leading London newspapers have command of immense resources which enable them to organize and support important ventures which affect the well-being of the nation. Among these may be mentioned the equipment of H. M. Stanley by *The New York Herald* to discover the whereabouts of Livingstone in Central Africa; the huge prizes offered by *The Daily Mail* for the encouragement of aviation; the same journal's successful enterprise in starting a farm to demonstrate the feasibility of sending town workers back to the land; *The Spectator's* successful experiments in aid of a National Military Reserve; the equipment of polar expeditions; the advocacy of painless killing of animals for food, and the like. All such ventures are supported by the funds of the newspapers concerned, but equally important are the opportunities given by the organizations of the great newspapers for bringing together large numbers of people

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to support public interests. In this connexion may be mentioned : subscription lists on the morrow of great disasters such as the sinking of the *Titanic* ; testimonials to public men such as that organized by *The Daily Telegraph* in 1895 for Dr W. G. Grace, the famous cricketer ; the support given by *The Daily Mail* in 1907-1908 to the scheme of the Liberal Government for the institution of a Territorial Force to replace the old Volunteers, whereby at a critical time for the scheme a large number of young men were induced to join ; the advocacy by *The Daily Mail* in 1912 of *The Miracle*, a pageant play then being performed at Olympia, which converted a failure into a triumphant success ; the many charitable schemes at Christmas organized by various newspapers on behalf of poor and afflicted children, and other needy members of society.

So far we have considered the morning newspaper, but the term " the Press " comprises other classes, and first may be mentioned the evening newspaper. *The Globe*, founded in 1803, is the oldest of these, and, like *The Pall Mall Gazette*, it changed its politics in course of time from Liberal to Conservative. This change on the part of *The Pall Mall Gazette* led to the founding of *The Westminster Gazette*, a most influential organ of the Liberal party. These and other London evening papers, published at one penny, have had a large share in influencing political views, and they have appealed to the educated and cultured classes by reason of the high standard of their literary columns and articles upon all subjects in which such readers are interested. The catalogue of the names of the editors and contributors during the last half-century would include such

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distinguished public men as Lord Morley, Mr Frederic Greenwood and Mr W. T. Stead.

The halfpenny London evening papers are much less important, although *The Evening News* and *The Star*, Unionist and Radical respectively, are read by large numbers.

In another important class of newspapers are the weeklies, such as *The Spectator*, Unionist and Free Trade; *The Nation*, Radical; *The Saturday Review*, Unionist; *The Athenæum*, and many others.

These appeal for support to intellectual readers who are interested in home politics and foreign affairs, in literature, art, music and the drama. Their prices are usually sixpence or threepence, but a competitor, *Everyman*, has entered the field at the popular price of one penny.

In a quite different class are *The Illustrated London News*, *The Graphic*, and other weekly illustrated newspapers. The former first appeared in 1842, and it was considered a great feat to produce regularly a paper filled with pictures. The idea of such an illustrated paper as *The Daily Mirror* at one halfpenny would have seemed preposterous in those days, but the invention of mechanical processes for the reproduction of pictures has removed all difficulties and illustrations are a feature in almost all of the newspapers of to-day.

Another weekly illustrated paper calls for special mention. *Punch*, like *The Times*, is a British institution with a glorious past, but, unlike *The Times*, it has not reduced its price of threepence each number. Its cartoons have often profoundly impressed the country, and some are of historic importance. Amongst these is the cartoon depicting the coming of "General

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V °

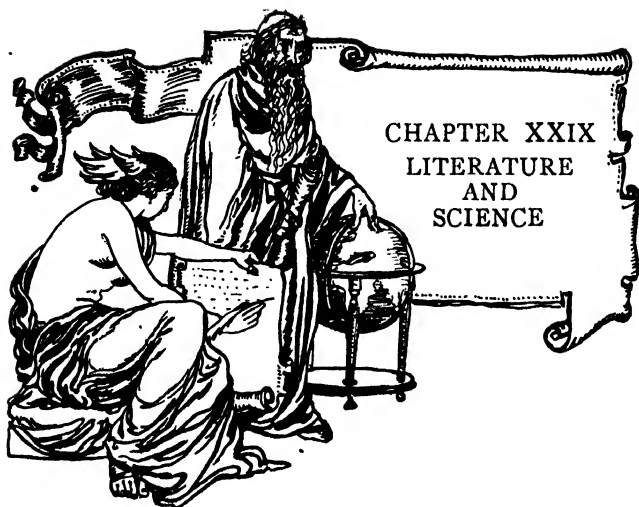
Février" to the Czar Nicholas of Russia. The Czar had said that he relied upon Generals *Janvier* and *Février* for victory in the Crimea, and he himself died in the winter month of March 1855. Another famous cartoon depicted the old Prince Bismarck leaving the ship of state which he had piloted so many years. It would take too long to tell of the many distinguished artists and authors who have contributed to *Punch*. It has not been merely a humorous paper, and no doubt much of its permanent success has been due to the fact that, like the great jesters of the Middle Ages, it has always known the moment when to be serious. One of the most poignant appeals in our literature, Tom Hood's *Song of the Shirt*, appeared first in its columns.

Still another section of the Press which has played a great part in forming and informing public opinion is that of the monthly and quarterly reviews. Among the greatest of these are *The Edinburgh*, *The Quarterly*, *Blackwood's*, *The Nineteenth Century*, *The Fortnightly* and *The Contemporary*. To the pages of these the foremost English men of letters and our greatest politicians and publicists have contributed. Of late years there have been numerous additions to the number of monthly reviews and the traditional price of half-a-crown is not being asked by the new-comers.

Space does not permit of the mention of the many influential journals published in the provinces, or of the thousand and one newspapers, magazines, etc., issued in the interests of particular professions or trades, or to support public societies, religious bodies or organizations for the welfare of the community. These, however, all take an important part in the work of

THE FOURTH ESTATE

influencing the people and guiding their opinions, wherein lies the secret of what is termed "the power of the Press." Mighty indeed is this power, and on the whole it is wielded with a sense of responsibility. There have been occasions when newspaper columns have been used to mislead the public and to foster causes which have not been in the interests of the people, but with the growth of public education and enlightenment such things become more dangerous to the newspapers themselves and we may confidently look for a continued advance in the purity and sincerity of the Press. The great newspapers may well be termed the expression of our national life. They are the arteries of society through which flows the stream of intellectual activity which is essential for progress, and we cannot imagine a world without them. It may be, however, that a first-class newspaper for one halfpenny is not to be a permanent possibility. Signs are not lacking that the increased cost of commodities is felt in the newspaper office as elsewhere, and although *The Daily Mail*, for instance, has endeavoured to insure against an intolerable increase in the cost of paper by purchasing, with all but sovereign powers, a huge tract of forest land in Newfoundland from which it can draw pulp for its paper, other factors may compel even this giant to increase its price.



THE Victorian period was one of the greatest in our literary annals, using that term in its widest and most comprehensive sense. Two of its most distinguished names, Herbert Spencer (1820-1903) and Charles Darwin (1809-1882), would alone serve to give it that distinction. Spencer is remarkable as a man who by hard, independent thinking anticipated most of the doctrines of advancing science. He founded a system of philosophy which was in harmony with the theory of evolution, as elaborated by Darwin into a perfect demonstration. He was further distinguished by his thoroughness in carrying his philosophy into all the phenomena of life—laws, government and institutions, as well as the nature of man, and in showing that every activity of the human

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spirit is to be accounted for on the same principles that explain the movement of the starry spheres. In fact, he began with ethical and social questions. He had written much on the theory of evolution—that is, the theory that all forms of life have been gradually developed from something low to something high. The theory was well known, however, before his and Darwin's time, before that great thinker put it on a solid basis by the publication of his epoch-making book.

Spencer's most precious contribution to the philosophy of being was the principle that work exists for life, and not life for work, and that the State exists for individuals and not individuals for the State. Unfortunately his health was delicate and his life was, especially in his later years, one long martyrdom, alleviated by his interest in his work; his great labours might never have been completed, but for the generosity of an American friend who gave him the means of bringing them to a successful conclusion.

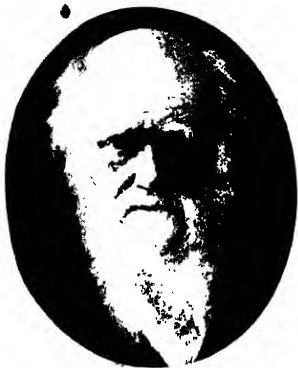
Darwin showed the same devotion to his life work under the same hindrances of ill-health. His is the greatest name of all, because of the importance and the far-reaching consequences of his theory.

When he was at Cambridge he read the personal narrative of the great German traveller and naturalist, Humboldt, and this decided the bent of his mind. He studied natural history, and, when he left the university, obtained a commission as naturalist on a scientific expedition which was going out on the *Beagle* to survey the South American coast. He thus was able to study botany, geology and zoology in many parts of the world, and published the first result of his painstaking and careful investigations in 1839. His researches

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showed him that plants and animals were not originally in their present form but that in the process of the ages, by the survival of the fittest, they had evolved into finer and more beautiful types, as the garden rose is the descendant of the wild rose of the hedgerows. He was one of the few who have revolutionized the whole thinking of the race for all time. In *On the Origin of Species by Means of Natural Selection* he gave the theory of evolution the perfect status of demonstration. Before this time it was but a brilliant speculation; he invested it with the dignity of a verdict of science from which there was no appeal. He had the true modesty of greatness, but he knew his powers, and confessed almost with surprise that he had found that he was "superior to the common run of men in noticing things which easily escape attention, and in observing them carefully. Therefore my success as a man of science, whatever this may have amounted to, has been determined so far as I can judge by complicated and diversified mental qualities and conditions. Of these the most important has been the love of science, unbounded patience in long reflecting over any subject, industry in observing and collecting facts, and a fair share of invention as well as of common sense."

Curiously enough, Alfred Russel Wallace, another of the great scientists of the period, had by independent thinking discovered the same principle of Natural Selection, not before Darwin, but before Darwin's hypothesis, as it then was, had been published to the world. But when he found how much further Darwin was prepared to carry it, he generously withdrew from all competition with him. Darwin's *Descent of Man*, published in 1871, hardly less famous than the



Darwin



Huxley



Lister



Herbert Spencer

Great Victorian Scientists

Photo, Emery Walker, Ltd.

LITERATURE AND SCIENCE

Origin of Species, attempted to demonstrate that man himself, like all else in the planet, had been a growth and a development through the great anthropoid group of apes related to the progenitors of the orang-outang, chimpanzee and gorilla.

Thomas Huxley (1825-1895), one of the greatest biologists of our time, had the same wholesome and stimulating tendency as Spencer to extend his speculations to the problems of life and human institutions as they existed in his day. His literary gifts were far in excess of those of his great scientific contemporaries, and his style will ever remain one of the models of our language.

Lord Kelvin (1824-1907) must also be named here. He was the most brilliant of the natural philosophers of the nineteenth century. We owe to him that solution of the problem of the transmission of electric currents in submarine cables, without which the Atlantic cable might never have become a realized idea. He invented all sorts of delicate scientific instruments for practical work, and was thus the connecting link between the workshop and the laboratory. In this way he was the Archimedes of his time. He was knighted in 1866, raised to the peerage in 1892, and on his death, in 1907, was buried in Westminster Abbey. Sir William Crookes, Francis Galton and Alexander Bain are others whose names will always be prominent in the record of scientific research and achievement during the nineteenth century.

It is impossible to do more than mention the names of the great historians of the nineteenth century: Macaulay, whose brilliant literary style invested history with romance; James Froude, whose studies of the great

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Elizabethan period are vivid and picturesque ; Edward Freeman, the historian of the Norman Conquest, who has directed a searching light on the difficult period of our beginnings as a nation ; John Richard Green, and his scholarly wife, to whose works all students of history will continue to be indebted.



NOTHING has been more remarkable in the nineteenth century than the advance made by women, due primarily to the opportunities for education which, in spite of strong opposition, were gradually opened to them. We have only to read the advice given to women in books of the late eighteenth century to realize how heavily they were handicapped and cut off from means of improvement, physical and mental. Thus, one writer, a clergyman, enjoins women as a solemn duty to cultivate "a form not robust"; another, a doctor, advises her to do violence to her intelligence by being "cautious ever in displaying your good sense. But if you happen to have any learning keep it a profound secret, especially from men, who generally look with a jealous and malignant eye on

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a woman of great parts, and a cultivated understanding." Another writer finds the study of botany inconsistent with "female delicacy"; and the great Dr Johnson has much the same objection to portrait painting, the latter being "improper employment" for a woman.

Girls were taught either in private schools or at home. Thackeray, in *Vanity Fair*, gives a good description of a school for young ladies in the early nineteenth century. Music, dancing, deportment, spelling, embroidery and needlework, a smattering of French and the execution, largely assisted by the master, of a feeble water-colour drawing, "finished" a pupil and equipped her to take her place in the world.

A very narrow world it was; she lived at home attending to small household duties, and enjoyed the society of her family and neighbours, till she married. If she did not attain to matrimony she was held in mild contempt by friends and relations. Had she the additional misfortune of being without means, her plight was a sorry one, for the only way by which women of the middle classes could earn their living was by teaching, either in schools or as private governesses. The home life whether of the married or unmarried had few outlets for energy and enterprise, though some industries were still pursued in the home, and preserves, wines, cakes and simple remedies made a notable housewife's still-room her pride. During the early years of the nineteenth century home industries were gradually absorbed by workshop and factory, and these half-educated gentlewomen had little left to occupy them but needlework—endless fancy work, light reading, and a trivial social round. It became clear to those who had the welfare of the race at heart that before the average woman could

• THE ADVANCE OF WOMEN

be expected to employ her leisure to better purpose, she must be taught to use her brains, and schools were started for higher education. Frederick Denison Maurice founded Queen's College in 1848, and this was followed by Bedford College in 1849; the North London Collegiate School, founded by Miss Buss; Cheltenham College, organized by Miss Beale; and many others. The aim was to teach girls to think by giving them a sound practical education in classics and mathematics, science and languages, and putting them intellectually on the same footing as their brothers. It was not till late in the nineteenth century that it was recognized that girls as well as boys required the discipline of organized games, and hockey and other school sports were introduced, together with gymnastics and swimming, for the development of the body.

A further intellectual advance was made when Girton (in 1872) and Newnham (in 1875), both at Cambridge, and Lady Margaret Hall (in 1879) and Somerville College (in 1879) at Oxford, were opened for women students. They are admitted to the University lectures and to the use of the laboratories; they may also take part in the examinations; but however high a place they attain, they are debarred from taking degrees for which they have qualified. The University of London was the first academic body to admit women as candidates for degrees.

Women now looked for fresh openings and sought admission to professions hitherto closed to them. Florence Nightingale had been instrumental in organizing one wide field for employment in sick-nursing; a candidate had to undergo a long course of hospital training and pass various examinations before she was

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qualified. Women now desired to enter the^c medical profession. On 1st January 1859 Dr Elizabeth Blackwell gained the distinction of being the first woman placed on the British Medical Register ten years after she had qualified in New York, where she had founded a Hospital and Medical School for Women. Dr Elizabeth Garrett Anderson is another pioneer among women doctors. She studied medicine in England and, in 1865, passed the only examination then open to her, that of the Society of Apothecaries. In 1870 she was made an M.D. by the University of Paris. After a hard fight women gained permission from the General Medical Council to sit for examinations, and they are now able to qualify at London, Edinburgh, Dublin and elsewhere. There are now about eight hundred women doctors in practice. The legal profession is still closed to women, so too is the clerical, with one exception—the Unitarian body have broken away from tradition by appointing a woman university graduate as minister. The Royal Academy still refuses to elect women to its body, but other societies are beginning to be more generous, and the Institute of Electrical Engineers elected their first and only woman member in Mrs Ayrton in 1899.

Women are also still debarred from voting for members of Parliament. In 1840 the ladies elected by the United States as delegates to the anti-slavery convention were refused as members in London. John Stuart Mill published in 1869 his pamphlet on the Subjection of Women, wherein he pleaded for perfect equality between the sexes, and this work has been a textbook of the Woman Movement. In 1867 he had moved an amendment to the Reform Bill, aiming at securing the inclusion of women, but it failed to find acceptance.

THE ADVANCE OF WOMEN

Year by year petitions praying for a removal of their disabilities, signed by distinguished women and others, were sent to Parliament. Even in those days women had their champions, and Disraeli among others was favourable to their claims. The movement generally had one result in drawing attention to some of the legal disabilities of women. Up to 1857, unless a marriage settlement was drawn up, a woman on her marriage endowed her husband with all her worldly goods, and had no right to her own earnings ; for by law husband and wife were one, and the husband was that one. Laws passed in 1857, 1870 and 1874 gave her a somewhat better position, and by the Married Women's Property Act (1870), drafted by Dr Pankhurst, a married woman retained the right to her own property, and was made responsible for her debts if she had private means, just as if she were single. In 1886 another measure of justice was enacted, for by the "Guardianship of Infants Act" the right of a mother to be the guardian of her own children on their father's death, with or without his previous consent, was secured by law.

Many women were still unsatisfied, and claimed that they should have a voice in making the laws they were called upon to obey, and that "taxation without representation is tyranny" is as true for one sex as for the other.

For forty years the suffrage societies worked quietly, holding meetings and signing innumerable petitions. Mrs. J. Fawcett, LL.D.—the widow of the blind Postmaster-General—a writer on political economy,



Mrs Fawcett

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was the leading spirit, and worked hard year by year for this reform. Duly qualified women were meanwhile admitted on the registers to vote for Borough Council Elections and County Council Elections.

With the opening of the twentieth century a new spirit came upon many disenfranchised women. The Women's Social and Political Union was founded in 1903 by Mrs Pankhurst, the widow of Dr Pankhurst, a member of the Independent Labour Party. This new association was joined by Mrs Despard, who had learned something of the social problems of the day at first hand ; having served on boards of guardians as school manager and in other positions ; Mr and Mrs Pethick Lawrence, who had also had much experience of social work among the poor ; Miss Annie Kenney, a mill hand, and a large body of women throughout the country. Mrs Pankhurst's daughter, Christabel Pankhurst, inaugurated new methods of agitation in 1905, when she and Miss Annie Kenney caused a disturbance at Sir Edward Grey's meeting at Manchester, for which they suffered imprisonment. The Union came to be identified with militant tactics and the members were nicknamed "suffragettes." They immediately aroused interest, for the Press, which had hitherto ignored the movement, found that it now furnished good "copy." The members from time to time, after being refused audience by Mr Asquith, the Prime Minister, attempted to raid the House of Commons, and in the scuffles which ensued between them and the police, hundreds were arrested and sentenced to imprisonment. All the leaders of the movement have seen the inside of Holloway Jail, more than once. In more peaceful moods the suffragettes have organized

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giant processions, filled Hyde Park to overflowing with demonstrators, held thousands of meetings in town hall or at street corner, and sold the organ of their movement, *Votes for Women*, in the streets. In the course of time Mrs Despard left the Union to found the Women's Freedom League, Mr and Mrs Pethick Lawrence seceded and took with them the paper, Mrs Pankhurst and Miss Christabel Pankhurst remaining as leaders, publishing as their organ *The Suffragette*.

Year by year Suffrage Bills have been introduced into Parliament. At one time they were received with hilarity on the part of members, now they call for serious debate. In March 1907 Mr Dickinson introduced a Suffrage Bill which, though it had the support of the then



Mrs Pankhurst

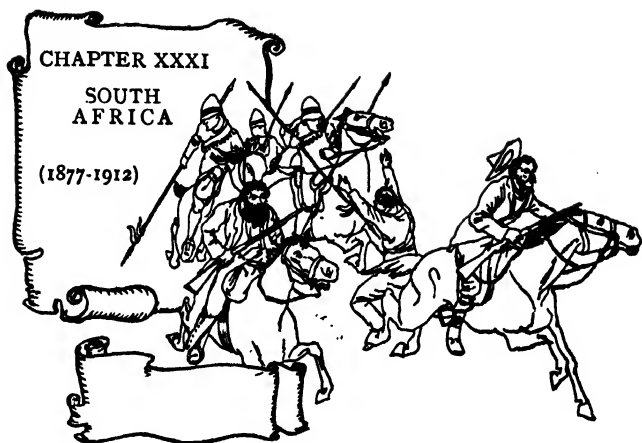
Prime Minister, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, was talked out. The Bill introduced by Mr Stanger, in February 1908, passed a second reading by a majority of 179, and was then shelved ; the same fate befell the Conciliation Bills, to which all women's suffrage societies gave their support in 1910 and 1911. The suffrage cause received a check in 1912, when another Conciliation Bill failed to pass its second reading.

A Manhood Suffrage Bill was part of the Liberal programme for 1913, and the Prime Minister, Mr Asquith, himself a strong opponent of women's enfranchisement, conceded that the question of women's suffrage could be introduced as an amendment to that measure. In January the Government Suffrage Bill

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went into committee, and on the eve of the introduction of the amendment, by Sir Edward Grey, the Speaker ruled that an Amendment of such overwhelming importance to the constitution could not be introduced, as the enfranchisement of women had not been part of the Government's official programme. The Manhood Suffrage Bill was dropped with the promise to the disappointed suffrage societies that a private member's bill should receive facilities in the next session of Parliament.

The movement, whether constitutional or militant, is not without its bitter opponents, who have united to form an Anti-Suffrage League, which counts among its ardent supporters the well-known novelist, Mrs Humphry Ward.



FOR twelve years the Boers, as the Dutch in the Transvaal were called, though constantly harassed by attacks from the Zulus, under their chief Cetewayo, and by financial troubles, had retained their independence. But in 1877 the little republic, greatly against the wishes of the majority of its inhabitants who had trekked there to escape English rule, was annexed to the British Empire.

Cetewayo was to prove as troublesome a neighbour to the British authorities as he had been to the Boers. At last, in 1879, it was found necessary to send Lord Chelmsford with 5500 men against him. A large detachment of this force was defeated with heavy loss at Isandhlwana (22nd January 1879). But for the action of two lieutenants, who with eighty men held Rorke's Drift against 4000 Zulus till reinforcements came, the Zulus would have invaded Natal. In July

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the Zulus suffered a crushing defeat at Ulundi and Cetewayo was subsequently taken prisoner.

The complete defeat of the Zulus thus relieved the Transvaal settlers of one of their most formidable enemies, and the Boers became increasingly anxious to throw off the British yoke. They sent as their spokesman to England a prominent burgher, John Paul Kruger, and he came more than once to appeal against the annexation, but he pleaded in vain. Gladstone, who appreciated the character of the Boers, speaking of them as "a people vigorous, obstinate, tenacious as we are ourselves," sympathised with their demands.



President Kruger

Attempts at negotiations having failed, the Boers in December 1880 proclaimed a republic, and established a provisional government with Kruger, Joubert and Pretorius at its head. A British force under Sir George Colley was sent to put down the insurrection, but the Dutch were to prove themselves formidable opponents; they knew their country well and were splendid marksmen. On 28th January 1881 Colley was defeated at Laing's Nek, and again on 8th February at Ingogo. On 27th February he took up a strong position on Majuba Hill. That same evening the Boers crept stealthily up the steep slope, under shelter of the hillside, till they came within fighting distance of our troops. The Highlanders attacked, but the Boers drove them back, and the British were forced from their position and driven pell mell down

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the steep slope. Colley fell with his face to the foe, and over 200 British were killed and wounded, the Boers losing only two men.

It was a wonderful feat of arms, and was to decide the fate of the Transvaal for the next eighteen years. The British Government concluded a peace under the terms of which the independence of the Transvaal was recognized, subject to the suzerainty of the Queen, which meant that Great Britain retained the right of veto over treaties with foreign powers.

The Boers were a farming community and lived by the cultivation of the soil, tending their flocks and herds, anxious to keep themselves to themselves, untouched as far as possible by the march of civilization. In 1883 Kruger was elected President of the Republic. He was a man of iron will, patriotism and courage; but he was obstinate and narrow-minded. Consequently he heard with anything but pleasure that gold had been discovered in the Witwatersrand in 1884, for he knew that this would attract a large alien population to his little republic. It was as he feared, adventurers and prospectors from the Continent, America and Great Britain flocked to the goldfields, and the town of Johannesburg grew up in the centre of the mining district.

Another leading figure in South Africa, Cecil Rhodes, was in strong contrast to the President of the Transvaal. The son of an English clergyman, he had come to South Africa as a youth of seventeen in broken health, to join his brother Herbert, who was cotton-growing in Natal. Herbert Rhodes left the estate to seek diamonds on the banks of the Vaal River, and later bought a claim at Kimberley and sent for his brother

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to join him. Cecil Rhodes set forth, Sir Lewis Mitchell tells us, "in a Scotch cart drawn by a team of oxen, carrying with him a bucket and a spade, several volumes of the classics and a Greek lexicon." He rode through the wild country till he reached the



Cecil Rhodes

rough mining town where some forty thousand people dwelt in huts and iron shelters. Here his task was to superintend the Kaffir workmen and sort the diamonds, and in moments of leisure he would be seen lost in thought, seated on an up-turned bucket. He did not dream of a fortune, though he ultimately became a millionaire, but of a vast extension of British territory in those almost unknown lands in northern South

Africa. He gradually acquired additional interests in the diamond mines, for quite early he conceived the idea of consolidating the diamond interests into one big company—virtually to make a trust in South African diamonds. This task he did not accomplish until 1889.

Meantime Rhodes had other intentions. In the first place he desired to be thoroughly educated, and when he was twenty returned to England to take his terms at Oxford, entering Oriel College in October 1873. For the next eight years he alternated between Oxford, with its glorious buildings hallowed by centuries of culture, and Kimberley, raw and new with humanity in the rough engaged in a feverish struggle to "get rich quick."

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Rhodes took his degree in 1881, and the same year entered the Cape Parliament. Early in his political career he definitely declared the aims he had in view as to the future of South Africa. "I believe in a United States of South Africa, but as a portion of the British Empire. I believe that confederated states, in a colony under responsible government, would each be practically an independent republic, but I think we should also have all the privileges of the tie with the Empire." Pondering over the map of South Africa, he had dreams of a British territory which should extend from the Cape to Zambesi, and even beyond to Lake Tanganyika. He looked upon Bechuanaland as "the Suez Canal of the trade of the country," and resolved that the district should be under British protection. As one of the commissioners sent to inquire about the boundaries in Griqualand West, he took the opportunity of persuading the natives and the freebooters of Bechuanaland of the advantages that would accrue to them from annexation to Cape Colony. He was not backed by the Cape Parliament, where the Dutch members had no wish to see an extension of British influence, but he won the day, and by the Convention of London, 27th February 1884, Bechuanaland was made a protectorate.

In 1889 Rhodes obtained a charter for the British South African Company, which extended our commerce into Mashonaland and Matabeleland, later to be known as Rhodesia. Rhodes's project was to attract British colonists to settle on the land and by the introduction of railways and telegraphs to develop the trade and safeguard the mining interest. The Matabeles, headed by Lobengula, their chief, attacked the British

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settlers, but the latter successfully assaulted their capital, Bulawayo. Lobengula fled, and was pursued by Major Alan Wilson with thirty-three troopers to his very camp, where he was guarded by hundreds of wild tribesmen. The little band of English perished to a man, with their faces to the foe, fighting gallantly, singing the national anthem as they fell. But for this mishap the campaign was completely successful. Lobengula died soon afterward and Matabeleland was annexed to the British Empire, to be governed by the Chartered Company. Cecil Rhodes had become Prime Minister in Cape Colony.

The Uitlanders, as the foreign residents (mostly British) in the Transvaal were called, had many just grievances against Kruger's conservative rule. They had come to own a large part of the land in the republic and paid enormous sums yearly in taxation, yet they were treated as aliens, for the Boers considered that they were only birds of passage, who would make their pile and leave the country. Consequently they were allowed no share in the government, were not permitted to sit on juries or to receive any of the privileges of full citizenship. A reform party was organized in Johannesburg, and the members consulted Cecil Rhodes, who interviewed Kruger on their behalf. Kruger obstinately refused to consider the Uitlander grievances, whereupon they determined to resort to arms, remove him and elect a new president who would sympathize with their views. Rhodes promised the assistance of the Chartered Company's mounted police, with Dr Jameson, the administrator of Rhodesia, at their head. Rifles were smuggled into Johannesburg, and all was in readiness, when dissensions arose among

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the reform party. Dr Jameson was urged not to cross the frontier, but on 29th December 1895, in spite of warnings, accompanied by several military officers, and nearly 500 men, he made a raid into the Transvaal. Three days later, when within reach of Johannesburg, he encountered a strong force of Boers, and was obliged to surrender on condition that all lives should be spared.

Public feeling ran high when the German Emperor took the occasion of wiring congratulations to President Kruger.

Jameson and the ringleaders were handed over to Sir Hercules Robinson, the high commissioner at the Cape, brought to England to stand their trial, and convicted of "preparing a military expedition within her Majesty's dominions to invade a friendly state." They were sentenced to terms of imprisonment, and the same fate befell the members of the reform committee who were brought up for trial in Johannesburg.



Dr Jameson

Cecil Rhodes, who declared that by this premature raid Jameson had "upset his apple cart," was not put on his trial, but he resigned his offices as Premier of Cape Colony and as managing director of the Chartered Company and came to England to attend the special commission held to inquire into the raid.

Immediately after the raid, the Matabeles, encouraged by Jameson's disaster, rose in revolt, and news was brought to Rhodes, who was staying in his beautiful

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house at Groote Schuur, on the slopes of Table Mountain. General Carrington had been sent with a small force to quell the rebellion, but the Matabeles were difficult foes to encounter, and Rhodes feared lest the guerrilla warfare should go on for some time and ruin the colony. He had now no official position, but with his usual determination he resolved to put down the rising. He pitched his camp in the immediate neighbourhood of the Matabeles, "ready," so he said, "to have his throat cut if necessary," and ready also to persuade the chiefs to make terms. After six weeks, during which time he daily received the chiefs, chatted with them and chaffed them, they decided to hold a council at their headquarters. Thither Rhodes, unarmed, accompanied only by a scout and an interpreter, rode to hear the result of their deliberations. During the conference the younger chiefs grew restive, and for a moment it seemed as though Rhodes would pay forfeit with his life. The interpreter urged him to fly, but he waved him aside. "Go back I tell you," he commanded, and the young man drew back. "Is it peace or war?" he asked, and the chiefs threw their spears at his feet. It was the triumph of a commanding personality, and Rhodes as he rode home across the granite hills said quietly: "It is such scenes as this that make life worth living."

But from this time forward the Transvaal difficulties became if anything more acute, for the President and his advisers had less intention than ever of improving the position of the Uitlanders. Sir Alfred Milner succeeded Sir Hercules Robinson in 1897, and he sympathized with their grievances, and negotiations went on in 1899 between him and Mr Joseph Chamberlain, the Secretary for the Colonies, and President

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Kruger. The negotiations fell through, and on 11th October 1899 the South African War broke out, the Orange Free State, under President Steyn, joining with the Transvaal.

England reckoned on an easy victory, but she had forgotten the character of her foes, and had not fully realized the preparedness for war of the burghers of the Transvaal. Moreover, the War Office was to show that it had not fully informed itself as to the nature of the struggle, or the geography of the country which was to be the theatre of war. It was the first contest Great Britain had waged with one of the white races since the Crimean War.

A force of 20,000 Boers was ready for active service in the early days of October, and they had splendid leaders in their Commander-in-Chief, General Joubert, General Cronje, Christian de Wet, and Louis Botha. The Boers opened the campaign by crossing the frontier into Natal, which was to be defended by Sir George White. At Talana Hill on 20th October, and the next day at Elands-laagte, the British forces repulsed the Boers, and these successes augured a speedy end to the war. Unfortunately Sir George White had too small a force at his command to profit by the victories he had won. The first disaster of the war occurred at Nicholson's Nek, near Ladysmith, on 30th October, where the Boers under Joubert defeated Sir George White's forces, and 42 officers and 900 men were obliged to surrender. Sir George White, with the remnant of his army, was now closely invested in Ladysmith, but fortunately not before some powerful naval guns, mounted for use on land by Sir Percy Scott, were hurried into the town. Meantime, Mafeking, which was under the command of Colonel

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Baden Powell, and Kimberley, where Mr Cecil Rhodes had established his headquarters, were also invested.

In the beginning of November reinforcements were sent from England, and General Sir Redvers Buller, who was acquainted with South Africa, came out to take supreme command. Strong contingents were also despatched from our colonies, which rendered magnificent support during this depressing period. The War Office had replied to their first proffers of help, "Unmounted men preferred," thus showing how ill qualified were the British authorities to judge of the situation, for it soon appeared that mounted men were essential for dealing with the elusive Boers.

Lord Methuen was sent to relieve Kimberley, and after repulsing the Boers at Belmont and Graspan he crossed the Modder River and spent Sunday, 11th December, assaulting the Boer trenches at Magersfontein. In the darkness of the early hours of Monday he hurled his men against the enemy's lines. Headed by the Highland Brigade, under General Wauchope, they pressed forward, to be met by a deadly fire from the Boers, who were carefully concealed and hidden by foliage in their trenches. Very soon 650 Highlanders lay dead and dying on the veld, and General Wauchope was among the slain. Throughout the long day they lay on the scorching veld, taking what cover they could from the deadly aim of the Boers, and it was not until dusk that they were able to withdraw, badly beaten. Lord Methuen was obliged to fall back upon the Modder River.

On the morning of 10th December, General Gatacre, who had been sent to the Orange Free State, misguided by a chance informant, marched his troops into an

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impossible position at Stormberg, and had the misfortune to lose 700 men, 600 of whom were taken as prisoners to Pretoria.

A third disaster was to mark that black week in December. General Buller, marching to the relief of Ladysmith, crossed the Tugela River, with 20,000 men, and encountered the Boer forces at Colenso, and was badly beaten. The attempt to recover the lost guns from the enemy was graphically told by an eye-witness who was close to General Botha at the time. "Teams of six horses, hitched two together, directed by three mounted drivers, essayed the impossible task. They came at a full gallop, with a huge iron hook ready to attach to a gun and haul it off. In the 'schanzes' (the shelters in which the Boers concealed themselves with the assistance of bush or grass) the Boers waited. Nearer and nearer came the galloping teams, the ground shaking under the thunder of hoofs. General Botha's powerful voice could be heard admonishing his men :

" ' Hold your fire. Let them get closer. Wait—wait. Steady, steady, steady. Not yet—not yet—not yet—now ! ' Crack. A leader is down. Crack-crack. A wheeler topples over. C-r-r-r-ash ! Down they go in a heap, an indescribable tangle of men and animals, many of the drivers being crushed or kicked to death by the maddened brutes."

Among those who took an heroic part in this attempt was Lieutenant Roberts, the only son of Lord Roberts, who was mortally wounded. The Queen, who could not pin the Victoria Cross he had so gallantly earned on the breast of the dead, sent it to his sorrowing mother.

The news of these disasters produced profound gloom in England, and strenuous efforts were now determined

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V •

upon to retrieve the position. A company of 10,000 Yeomanry cavalry was raised, the reserves were called out, and companies of volunteers were embarked for South Africa. In December 1899 Lord Roberts was sent out to assume supreme command, with Lord Kitchener as chief of his staff. Kitchener set to work immediately to restore order in Cape Colony, which was in a state of chaos, and Lord Roberts made his plans for relieving the besieged towns. Meantime a second attempt to relieve Ladysmith failed. General Buller marched his army across the Tugela and Sir Charles



Lord Roberts

Warren took the height of Spion Kop and held it for a day, swept though it was by Boer guns. But the height was so steep that it was impossible to bring up the British guns, and our troops were without water. Consequently by nightfall the position had to be abandoned (23rd January 1900).

Meantime Lord Roberts had ordered General French to march with all speed to the relief of Kim-

berley, which had been heavily bombarded by the Boers with their powerful Creusot cannon. The shells burst in the town and the women and children were compelled to take refuge in the diamond mines, twelve hundred feet below the surface of the ground. The situation was desperate, as the besieged were reduced to semi-starvation.

When General Cronje knew that General French at the head of a large force was approaching, he raised the siege and the relieving force entered the town, 15th

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February. Cronje, pursued by Lord Kitchener, fell back upon Paardeberg, where for ten days he made a stubborn resistance. The account of the attack on the Boers as given by one of the war correspondents is graphic reading: "Our shells searched every bush and every ravine on the river banks. The inflading guns must have done terrific execution, yet in a spirit of desperate madness, now and again a Boer would attempt a sniping shot at one of the naval guns, which were firing at a range of only 1000 yards. On each side of the river lay two battalions, the whirring of whose Maxim fire sounded petty by the side of the deafening roar of the big guns, which belched death from two long lines on either bank."

The situation was hopeless, and on the anniversary of Majuba, 27th February, Cronje with 4000 men surrendered to the British, and this was the turning point in the war.

The next day was to see the relief of Ladysmith. After four ineffectual attempts Buller had despaired of saving the town. Fortunately Sir George White was a commander of the old heroic school and he did not give up hope. The activity of Lord Roberts had caused the withdrawal of many of the besiegers and, after twelve days' hard fighting, Buller now drove the Boers from one position after another, and Lord Dundonald with 200 men entered the town. The besieged were nearly starved out. Their rations were reduced to a small portion of horse or mule flesh, with half-a-pound of meal a day made up into something resembling a dog biscuit. There was no soap left, no candles were allowed, even the ready money had been commandeered to pay the troops, and a cheque given for repayment when the siege was over.

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Colonel Baden-Powell with the garrison and residents still held out at Mafeking, and the long days grew into months and no relief came. The



General Baden-Powell

Colonel made his name in that weary time of waiting as a brave man, able to greet ill fortune with a smile, and to inspire his hungry fellows with his own spirit of courage and cheerfulness. After a seven months' siege, Colonel Mahon at the head of a relieving column entered the town, to be greeted by a warm hand-clasp and "How do you do?" (17th May 1900).

The reticence shown in Mafeking was in strong contrast to the delirium in London, where the populace in their extravagant joy turned what should have been a demonstration of gratitude into an orgy.

Lord Roberts remained for three weeks in Bloemfontein after the surrender of Cronje, in order to give his wearied soldiers a rest and await consignments of boots and horses. He then marched northward, sweeping the Boers from his path, and reached Johannesburg and Pretoria, where Louis Botha and his army made what was virtually their last stand, at Diamond Hill. On 11th June they were defeated. The Orange Free State had been annexed, as the Orange River Colony, to the British Empire (28th May 1900), and by a proclamation on 1st September the Transvaal was added to her Majesty's dominions.

But the war was not at an end, though from this time

SOUTH AFRICA

forward the Boers avoided pitched battles, and Lord Roberts returned to England in December.

To Lord Kitchener was left the task of completing the campaign, and for months he was occupied in hunting down the Boers. De Wet was here, there and everywhere, and it was not till Kitchener built a series of blockhouses, and thus isolated the enemy, that the Boers were compelled to sue for peace. On 1st June 1902 a treaty was signed at Pretoria.

To Rhodes the moral of the war was "equal rights for every civilized man south of Zambesi." On such terms he believed that the Dutch and English would work well together, but that neither race should claim any right of preference over the other.

He was not to live to see this desire fulfilled. On 27th March 1902, murmuring "so little done, so much to do," he passed away. His grave, cut out of the solid rock of the Matoppos Hills, is marked by a great statue of Physical Energy, designed by G. F. Watts, R.A.

Rhodes was a dreamer and a man of action. Unlike Gordon, for whom he had a great regard, he valued wealth—but not for personal aggrandisement, not for the founding of a family, but for the power it gave to further the great projects of his mind. He is one of our great Empire Builders, and as such he stands the foremost figure in the history of British South Africa.

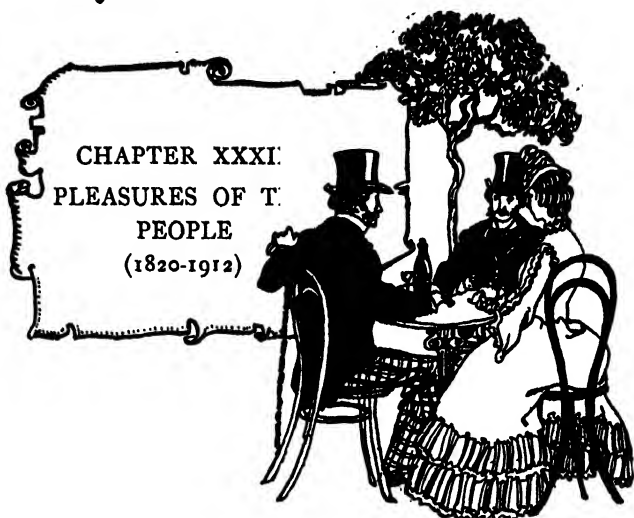
South Africa had suffered terribly from the devastation of two and a half years' conflict, and when the Boer prisoners, who had been exiled to St Helena and to India, returned to their homesteads they might well have despaired of ever retrieving their fortunes. But they were assisted with money to build their houses and to

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buy grain and cattle so that they might once more cultivate the land they had loved and lost.

By the wise statesmanship of Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, who succeeded Mr Balfour as Prime Minister in 1905, an endeavour was made to heal the open wound. The Transvaal and the Orange River Colony were granted responsible self-government in 1906 and 1907 respectively, and Briton and Boer now worked side by side to reorganize the country, and lay the foundations of a prosperous and loyal empire.

Three years later the four self-governing colonies in South Africa—Cape Colony, Natal, the Transvaal and the Orange River Colony—were united in a Constitution, and General Botha became the first Prime Minister in the Union Parliament opened in Cape Town in 1910 by the Duke of Connaught.



THE theatre has always been not only a favourite amusement, but also a leading indication of the tastes and thoughts of the time, holding "a mirror up to nature." In 1820 London theatres, save for two exceptions, might not open all the year round, for the law did not permit them to obtain a licence for more than six months. Thus the Haymarket was a summer theatre, and the Adelphi a winter one. Drury Lane and Covent Garden alone were privileged and held patent rights which enabled them to be open without intermission. This monopoly was abolished by an Act in 1843. In 1837 there were eighteen theatres to a population of 2,000,000 people.

In the reign of George IV the world of fashion attended the Italian Opera at the King's Theatre on the

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

site of the present His Majesty's. The house was in gala attire after a levée or Drawing-Room, for the fashionable folk made a point of attending dressed in their Court finery, the ladies decked with feathers and blazing with jewels. Apart from the opera, music lovers attended concerts at the philharmonic and vocal societies. Pleasure-seekers more frivolously inclined turned their steps to Madame Tussaud's waxwork exhibition, and to the panoramas in Leicester Square and Regent Street, where such thrilling scenes as a village engulfed by an avalanche were portrayed with realistic effects.

For fine summer evenings there were the pleasure-gardens, foremost among them the celebrated Vauxhall. Thackeray tells in *Vanity Fair* of its many delights, "of the hundred thousand *extra* lamps, which were always lighted; the fiddlers in cocked-hats, who played ravishing melodies under the gilded cockleshell in the midst of the Gardens; the singers, both of comic and sentimental ballads, who charmed the ears there; the country dances, formed by bouncing cockneys and cockneyesses, and executed amidst jumping, thumping and laughter; the signal which announced that Madame Saqui was about to mount skyward on a slack rope ascending to the stars; the hermit that always sat in the illuminated hermitage; the dark walks, so favourable to the interviews of young lovers; the pots of stout handed about by the people in the shabby old liveries; and the twinkling boxes, in which the happy feasters made-believe to eat slices of almost invisible ham."

Many great actors walked the stage in the early years of the nineteenth century, foremost among them Edmund Kean (1787-1833). He had served a hard apprenticeship in the provinces. It was the day of stock companies,

• PLEASURES OF THE PEOPLE

which stayed in provincial towns and gave a repertoire of plays, the performers thus acquiring experience in a wide range of parts. Nowadays, with few exceptions, companies tour the provinces each with a single play, which sometimes may be given for months or even years.

Kean came to London in 1813, and made his first appearance as Shylock in *The Merchant of Venice*; it was a triumphant success, and that character, Hamlet, and Iago in *Othello* were his great parts. He was as one inspired by the character that he represented, and Coleridge said of his acting that it was "like reading Shakespeare by flashes of lightning." He was intensely human as an actor, great in passion, deep in sympathy. His son Charles made a name on the stage, but he lacked his father's fire and fervour. He married a popular and charming actress, Ellen Tree, who had won recognition by her successes in Knowles' plays. James Sheridan Knowles (1784-1862) ranked high as a dramatist among his contemporaries, and his plays, *The Hunchback* and *Virginus*, held the stage for many years; his only serious rival was Sir Thomas Noon Talfourd (1795-1854), the author of *Ion*, which was hailed as a masterpiece when it was first produced in 1836, but is now all but forgotten.

Charles Kean took the Princess's Theatre in Oxford Street and was the pioneer in the elaborate production of plays. He had neither voice nor presence for the great tragic actor, and he strove to make up for his deficiencies by the beauty and appropriateness of his scenery and careful attention to historical accuracy in the costumes. The Shakespearean revivals at the Princess's were important events in the playgoing world.

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After Edmund Kean's death the leading English actor was William Charles Macready (1793-1873). He was educated at Rugby, and when he was sixteen left school to join his father as theatrical manager, playing important parts in his repertoire. He was a man of proud, sensitive temperament, and felt keenly the low esteem in which players were then held. He worked hard at his profession, holding that "patience is genius," and was a fine intellectual actor, though lacking the magnetism and passionate intensity of Edmund Kean. Though not good-looking he was tall and impressive in appearance, and his voice was so beautiful that a writer of the day said that "it seemed to me very exquisite music, with something instrumental and vibrating in the sound, like certain notes of the violoncello." Macready's repertoire was extensive, but Shakespearean characters suited him best and he was most successful in Henry IV, Lear and Macbeth. With him was associated as leading lady a beautiful and gifted actress, Helen Faucit, afterwards Lady Martin. She first appeared with him in 1836 in the then popular play of *The Hunchback*, and was a great success as Pauline in Bulwer Lytton's play of *The Lady of Lyons*. This play was very popular in its day, as were Lytton's other plays, *Richelieu* and *Money*; the latter is still occasionally performed.

Samuel Phelps for many years was a member of Macready's company. He left him in 1844 and started a venture of his own at Sadler's Wells, a little theatre at Islington. He worked there for eighteen years, making his name as a tragic actor, staging no less than thirty-one of Shakespeare's plays, and attracting all literary London.

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In 1855 Miss Marie Wilton (now Lady Bancroft) took a shabby little theatre off the Tottenham Court Road, the Prince of Wales's, and with Mr Bancroft (now Sir Squire) delighted playgoers with the simple domestic comedies—cup-and-saucer drama it was called—of Tom Robertson; *Ours, Caste, School, Society* were great favourites with the public. Mr Bancroft's finished acting, Mrs Bancroft's silvery voice and wonderful charm, the fine performances of John Hare, one of our great character actors, the work of Mr and Mrs Kendal, all helped in the success of the Bancrofts' enterprise.

When the Keans were at the Princess's in 1856, Ellen Terry, a winsome, merry little girl of eight, came to play Mamillius in *A Winter's Tale*. She was a member of a theatrical family, and her brother Fred, and sister Marion, are among the leading players of the day. Her other sisters, Kate and Florence, also won distinction on the stage. Ellen Terry served a hard apprenticeship under the Keans, and no actress has had a wider range of experience. The fascination of her personality, her charm and her power in certain parts won for her the position of leading English actress. In the same year as her first appearance the man with whom her fame was to be shared, Henry Irving (1838-1905), first trod the boards. He was of humble origin, born at Keinton Mandeville, in Somersetshire, and his early employment was as a clerk, but by the time he was eighteen the attraction of the stage was too great to be resisted, and he obtained an engagement at the Lyceum Theatre, Sunderland. After years of hard work learning the rules of his art, with growing ambition and growing powers, he came to London and obtained an engagement. His first connexion with the Lyceum

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

Theatre, which was ever afterwards to be associated with his name, was in 1871. He leaped into fame in a night by his performance there of Mathias in *The Bells*, the English version of a play by Erckmann-Chatrian, in which his rendering of the horror and remorse of the murderer were a revelation of tragic power.

When in 1878 Irving became lessee of the Lyceum he engaged Miss Ellen Terry as his leading lady, and for four and twenty years they appeared together in play after play. He had a great personality, a noble head which gained in distinction and beauty as the years passed over him, and fine hands; but certain mannerisms of voice and gesture caused him to be severely criticized by those who did not fall under his spell.

With the Keans at the Princess's, as we have seen, a new spirit had arisen among actor-managers, and they concerned themselves largely with the "production" of a play—that is, with the setting and dresses apart from the acting. Up to this time the sides of a room would be represented by coarsely painted cloths which shook with the draughts of the stage, and it was thought a great innovation when the Bancrofts introduced handles to real doors that would open and shut. Everything had been left to the imagination, as it is in China to this day, where a handful of torn paper does duty for snow, and other contrivances are equally simple. Now a stage-room is solidly built, elaborately decorated and furnished. What was done with modern plays was also done with reproductions of historical dramas. Irving aimed above all things at accuracy and beauty in his representations, and very splendid many of them were. He engaged well-known artists,

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Sir Philip Burne-Jones and Sir L. Alma Tadema among them, to advise him, and spared neither pains nor money to make everything perfect. He produced with success many of Shakespeare's plays, was a fine Hamlet, a notable Macbeth. He won great success by a dramatized version of Goethe's *Faust* by W. G. Wills, in which Ellen Terry played with great tenderness the part of the luckless Marguerite, and he scored a triumph as Mephistopheles. Among more artistic productions was a beautiful rendering of Tennyson's play, *The Cup*; and he also produced his *Becket*—the latter character being specially suitable to Irving's genius. He played it on 13th October 1905, and the closing words, "Into Thy hands, O Lord, into Thy hands," were all but the last he uttered, for he died a few hours later.

His work for the theatre had been a great one, and when, in 1895, Queen Victoria conferred knighthood on him, he accepted it, not so much as a tribute to his personal gifts, as to his profession. He had attracted to the Lyceum cultured and intellectual people who had hitherto held aloof from dramatic representations, and he had raised the status of the actor in the eyes of the world.

The honour of knighthood has since been conferred on other gifted actors whose services to the stage have won universal recognition—on Sir Squire Bancroft, who, after his retirement from management in 1885, devoted his gifts to earning money for charitable purposes; on Sir Charles Wyndham, most delightful of light comedians, whose performances of genial men of the world in Henry Arthur Jones' plays won him thousands of fresh admirers; on Sir George Alexander, who holds an honourable place as an actor-manager,

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

willing to give new authors a chance—his repertoire has included work of the leading modern dramatists, Sir Arthur Pinero, Oscar Wilde, R. C. Carton, H. V. Esmond and others; also on Sir Herbert Tree, whose productions at His Majesty's Theatre have been staged with a magnificence which has had little regard for cost.

Of other forms of dramatic entertainment toward the end of last century the first place must be given to the delightful comic operas, written in collaboration by Sir W. S. Gilbert (1836-1911) and Sir Arthur Sullivan (1842-1900). The first of the joint productions was *The Sorcerer*, at the Opera Comique in 1877, the last, *The Gondoliers* in 1889. During these years the public flocked to the Savoy Theatre, sure of an evening of music and laughter over the mock gravity and humour of *H.M.S. Pinafore*, *The Pirates of Penzance*, *Patience*—a skit on the æsthetic craze of 1880—and *The Mikado*.

Popular plays of a more frivolous kind were presented at the same period at the Gaiety Theatre, where burlesque was the rule. But in 1892 a new form of dramatic entertainment came into fashion there when *In Town* was produced, a thin thread of story into which is introduced song and dance. This was the first of a long line of musical comedies which have been highly successful in attracting the public.

Within the last ten years music halls, which originated in the performances given in back rooms of public-houses, have increased enormously in popularity. They are nightly thronged with spectators who find the varied turns much to their taste.

The last comer in the way of popular entertainments is the cinematograph theatre, where animated photo-

9. PLEASURES OF THE PEOPLE

graphs* of current events, and of imaginary scenes and dramas, are given in a continuous performance, to which patrons come at all times, paying only small amounts for their seats.

There are, of course, many other amusements. The great "White City" at Shepherd's Bush is a sort of successor to Vauxhall on an ambitious scale. An exhibition is held there each year, and in addition to the interesting exhibits there are well-laid-out gardens, plenty of music, illuminations and curious entertainments, such as mountain railways and other mechanical devices for getting a thrill with scant danger to life or limb.

The great football matches that attract many thousands of spectators, the cricket matches at Lord's and at the Oval, and other sporting events, have their devotees. Horse-racing has always been and continues to be the great sport of Englishmen, and Derby Day is still a national event.

CHAPTER XXXIII
KING EDWARD
THE SEVENTH
(1901-1910)



THE wonderful nineteenth century had drawn to its close; the twentieth had opened with the nation at war. In the early days of 1901 a figure that had stood for over two generations in the "fierce light that beats upon a throne" passed out of life into history. The "Stop Press" news of the early editions of the evening papers on 22nd January announced: "The bells of St Paul's and Westminster are now tolling"; they were tolling for the Queen.

The nation's tribute to one whose character had stood so stern a test was from the heart. She was born into an England with a profligate regent and a tarnished crown. She died having placed the throne higher in the affections of her people than it had ever been, for she was

KING EDWARD VII

the first truly constitutional monarch, and she left her son a noble example of life's work well done.

She had died at Osborne, and there, in the great dining-hall, the body lay in state, covered by a silken pall, surmounted by the sceptre and the orb. Thence it was borne to Cowes and on the royal yacht across the waters of the Solent, to be taken to London. The coffin was placed on a gun-carriage, and to the roll of muffled drums, escorted by kings, passed through the streets of the mourning capital, on its way to Windsor, where, on 4th February, Queen Victoria's body was laid beside that of the consort she had loved so well.

On 23rd January 1901 King Edward VII held his first Privy Council, and, after paying a touching tribute to his mother's memory, said: "In undertaking the heavy load which now devolves upon me, I am fully determined to be a constitutional monarch in the strictest sense of the word, and as long as there is breath in my body to work for the good and amelioration of my people."

The coronation was fixed for the 26th June 1902, and on the 24th London was filled to overflowing and lavishly decorated. On the tops of omnibuses sight-seers were craning their necks to see all that could be seen of the city in gala attire, when a rumour floated from one to another: "The coronation is postponed." Incredulous at first, the news was soon confirmed by the newspaper bills. The King was seriously ill and was to undergo an immediate operation. There was great anxiety for a day or two, but he quickly recovered, and the coronation actually took place in the ancient Abbey on 9th August, when Dr Temple, Archbishop of Canterbury, placed the crown upon his head, the

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V •

Archbishop of York crowning Queen Alexandra. The King gave the royal residence at Osborne as a gift to the nation, and it was used as a convalescent home for soldiers returning from the South African War. The coronation gift of his subjects (£115,000) was devoted by him to the hospital fund that bears his name.

The King and Queen had now to pay a course of state visits to the Continent, where the King, who had always been a great traveller, was extremely popular. He had three invaluable gifts for a modern monarch, tact, a good memory and a natural courtesy, and in his diplomatic relations with the heads of foreign states, his best qualities came out.

He visited Ireland, and, though the Dublin corporation refused to present an address, he received a royal welcome. In his speech on leaving he said: "For a country so attractive and a people so gifted we cherish the warmest regard, and it is with supreme satisfaction that I have during our stay so often heard the hope expressed that a brighter day is dawning for Ireland."

King Edward by his taste and disposition was eminently suited to the people he had to govern. A man of the world, he attracted the man in the street. He shared the national enthusiasm for sport. Three times he won the Derby, twice as Prince of Wales—in 1896, with the celebrated horse, Persimmon, and again in 1900 with Diamond Jubilee. In 1909, when Minoru carried the royal colours to the winning post, he was the first reigning monarch to obtain the blue ribbon of the turf.

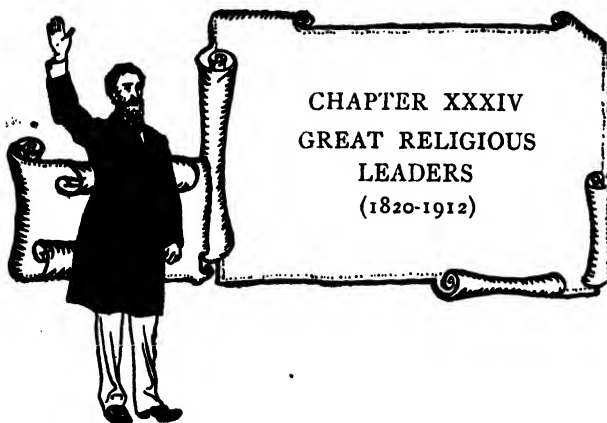
At Sandringham he lived the life of a country gentleman, interesting himself in agricultural pursuits, breeding cattle for shows, and looking after the workpeople on his estate. When in London he was a good patron

of the theatre and opera, and rarely missed seeing a successful play. He enjoyed his life thoroughly, and though occasionally, as a younger man, his actions were subject to serious criticism, his popularity, whether as prince or king, was always assured.

The whole nation realized that his diplomatic gifts and his influence in foreign politics had made the country many friends. He was on the side of peace and amity between civilized nations. His great love of the French led to a better understanding with that nation than we had ever previously enjoyed.

On his accession he created his son, George, Duke of York, Prince of Wales, according to precedent. He had the happiness to see his children's children. His eldest daughter married the Duke of Fife, his third daughter was married to Prince Charles of Denmark, and both had children, while to the Prince and Princess of Wales were born five sons and one daughter.

When after nine years' reign it pleased "Almighty God to call to His mercy our late Sovereign Lord King Edward" his subjects felt they had lost a friend whom they understood and who understood them. As a constitutional monarch he had been a great success; he was willing to accept the democratic spirit of his age, and it was said of him that had he had to come up for election he would as surely have succeeded to his position, as he did by inheriting it.



DAVID LIVINGSTONE, missionary and explorer (1813-1873), ranks among the heroes of the nineteenth century. He was of Scottish parentage, his father a small tea dealer, and the family were so poor that when David was ten he commenced his wage-earning life as a piecer in a cotton factory. With his first earnings he bought a Latin primer, and, though working from six in the morning till eight at night, studied in the evenings, and, propping the lesson book against his spinning-jenny, committed a word or two to memory while he tended the machine. Livingstone's father was a man of strong religious conviction, but it was not till David was twenty that he felt the mystic fervour of faith in the unseen. "In the glow of love which Christianity inspires," he wrote, "I soon resolved to devote my life to the alleviation of human misery." His thoughts

• GREAT RELIGIOUS LEADERS

turned to the "heathen lands afar" and he resolved to be a missionary. With characteristic thoroughness he decided to qualify in medicine as well as in theology, so that he might have power to heal the body and thus be able to come into closer contact with those whom he hoped to teach. He continued his work at the cotton factory in the summer months in order to earn money to pay for his classes in the winter. In 1840 he was licensed as a doctor, and the same year ordained as a missionary and sent out to Africa.

His first station was at Kuruman in the Bechuana territory, and there and at Mabolze he worked for years, studying the language and habits of the native population, and the botany and natural history of these remote parts. After his marriage to the daughter of the celebrated missionary, Robert Moffat, he travelled to the valley of the Zouga, and discovered Lake Ngami, where he hoped to found a missionary station. Livingstone never lost sight of his desire to uplift the natives, and they grew to trust and love him, but after a time his missionary work became subordinate to his work as an explorer in these unknown regions of Africa. He was the first white man to discover the sources of the Zambesi, the largest river in South Africa. In four years (1852-1856) he performed the splendid feat of crossing Africa from St Paul de Loanda on the East Coast to Quilimane on the West, enduring untold hardships, harassed by unfriendly native tribes, sick in body but serene in mind. After this journey he returned to England for a little over a year, and published his *Missionary Travels in South Africa*. He felt that the time had come to sever his connexion with the Royal Missionary Society, for it hampered his movements as an explorer, and

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V .

he returned to Africa as British Consul at Quilimane. In the region of Lake Nyassa he was horrified to see the terrible effects of the slave trade. In 1866 he set out to discover the sources of the Nile ; his native followers deserted him and falsely reported his death, but he pressed on and reached Lake Mweru, sixty miles west of Lake Tanganyika. From this time for three years no news was received of him by his friends in England. *The New York Herald* sent out H. M. Stanley (afterwards to win for himself an honourable place among African travellers) to search for the explorer, and the two men met in November 1871 at Ujiji. Livingstone remained in Africa, and two years later the terribly arduous life broke him down, and on 30th April 1873 he passed to his rest. His faithful attendants carried the body to the coast, and it was brought to England and buried in Westminster Abbey. On the slab that marks his grave are recorded the last words he wrote in his diary: "All I can add in my solitude is, may Heaven's rich blessing come down on everyone, American, English or Turk, who will help to heal this open sore of the world" (*i.e.* the slave trade).

The following eloquent tribute to his memory was penned by Professor Henry Drummond: "In the heart of Africa, among the great lakes, I have come across black men and women who remembered the only white man they ever saw before—David Livingstone ; and as you cross his footsteps in that dark Continent, you see men's faces light up as they speak of the kind Doctor who passed there years ago. They could not understand him, but they felt the love that beat in that great heart. They knew that it was love—that that

• GREAT RELIGIOUS LEADERS

life was laying itself down for Africa—although he spoke no words.”

A very different order of mind and a very different type of man, yet possessed of something of the same spirit of concentration in the work he had set himself to do, was William Booth (1829-1912), the founder of one of the most remarkable religious movements of the nineteenth century. Like Livingstone, he owed nothing in his early years to social advantages, either of rank or education. While quite a lad he set to work to help his widowed mother, and early became a member of the Wesleyan community. His life's mission was now begun, for he spent all his leisure hours in preaching to and helping the poor of Nottingham. He was consumed with a passionate zeal for the wayward and the sinful, and “go for souls and go for the worst” was ever his motto. He became a local preacher and came to London, and in 1853 married Catherine Mumford, who shared with him his overmastering passion for the “churchless and Christless crowds of East London”; and not of East London alone, for they worked as revivalists in many parts of the country. The Booths severed their connexion with the Wesleyans and founded the Christian Mission, which in 1877 was renamed the Salvation Army, with the “General,” as he came to be known, at its head. Those under him, men and women alike, bore military titles and wore special uniforms symbolic of the holy war against disbelief and sin. Of this Army it was said that General Booth was the organizing force and Mrs Booth the spiritual force. The General soon found that the preaching of his fiery gospel, the waving of the scarlet flag, the drums and trumpets, were not sufficient in themselves to raise the outcast from degradation to

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self-respect, and in *In Darkest England and the Way Out* he outlined a scheme for the social work of the Salvation Army. Vast sums came in—for the night shelters for the homeless, the food depôts, the labour colonies, and for other enterprises designed to set men and women who had fallen, through weakness, crime or hopeless poverty, on their feet again. If General Booth did not succeed in doing all that he dreamed of, yet many owed great and lasting benefit to the helping hand held out to them by the Salvation Army, not only in England but in forty-seven other countries where this organization has taken root.

The success of General Booth led to the foundation by the Church of England of the Church Army, with the same aims—namely, to give a fresh chance to the dregs of our wasteful civilization, and to strive to attract the masses to take an interest in religion by means of magic lantern services and other devices.

The appeal of the outcast children came to Dr Barnardo (1845-1905), when he was a student at the London Hospital. He had turned a stable into a meeting-place for ragged boys, and one day a little chap remained behind warming himself by the stove. The Doctor bade him go home. "Ain't got no home," the child replied, and after some further conversation he took the Doctor to one of the haunts where London's friendless children shelter for the night. This ultimately led to the founding of Dr Barnardo's Homes, in which the great philanthropist, Lord Shaftesbury, took a large share. For many years Dr Barnardo stood by the proud assertion: "No destitute child ever refused admittance." By the time of his death nearly 60,000 children were indebted for their upbringing and their start in life to

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this foundation, and many happy Canadian homes bear witness to the success of his scheme for emigrating boys and girls who were fitted for colonial life.

The unloved, unblessed little ones found a champion in the Rev. Benjamin Waugh, founder of the National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, for even in nineteenth-century England there were people so debased that they could ill-treat those who should have looked to them for love and protection. The society rescued ill-used children and prosecuted offenders against the little ones, and it has become a wholesome terror to inhuman people with children in their charge.

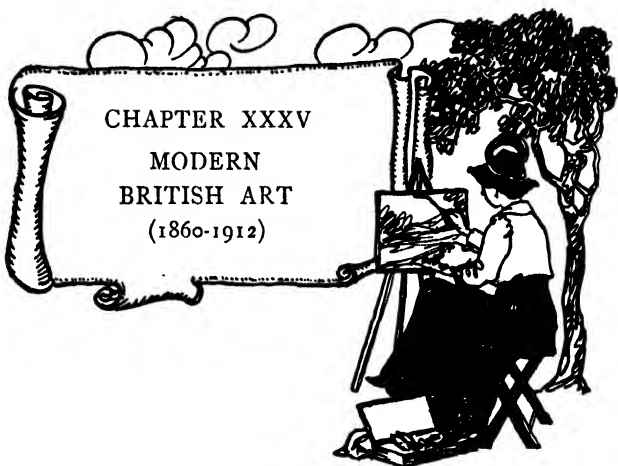
These are but a few of the innumerable efforts made during the Victorian era to lighten the dark places of life. Among others should be mentioned various attempts to bring education and the privilege of social intercourse with enlightened people to the workers in our great cities. One of the first of these "settlements," as they are called, was Toynbee Hall in the East End, named in honour of Arnold Toynbee, who was an early worker in this field of effort. Many colleges and schools have since founded settlements with the same objects in view, and young university graduates and others spend months in residence, learning at first hand, and by daily intercourse with the labouring people, something of the problems and difficulties of their lot, and teaching them to spend their leisure wisely.

Great preachers have arisen both in the Church of England and in the dissenting bodies who have stimulated the religious feeling of thousands. Such a man was Frederick William Robertson of Brighton, who by his eloquent sermons inspired his hearers to work for a

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better future for the labouring classes. Another great preacher was Dr Liddon, Canon of St Paul's, whose eloquent and scholarly gifts made him one of the finest preachers of his day. Charles Haddon Spurgeon, the great Baptist minister, had so large a following that the Metropolitan Tabernacle, seating some 6000 people, was specially built for him. Endowed with earnestness and common-sense, he would drive his points home by flashes of humour that made him enormously popular. Dr Parker at the City Temple was also famous among preachers. His successor, Mr R. J. Campbell, who takes a deep interest in social problems of our day, and who is not afraid to state advanced opinions, has won for himself a place in the front ranks of spiritual leaders.

The nineteenth century has seen marked change of outlook in religious matters. Sincere men and women of all sects, yielding allegiance to conflicting dogmas and creeds, have yet come to the same conclusion—that the best practical outcome of any faith is in deeds, and that "Inasmuch as ye have done it unto one of the least of these my brethren, ye have done it unto me" is as safe a guide in this world as it may be a sure passport to the world to come.



CHAPTER XXXV

MODERN BRITISH ART (1860-1912)

YEAR by year on the walls of the Royal Academy we see the current art of Britain, and at smaller exhibitions we see the special tendencies of the advanced schools of painting: impressionist, post-impressionist, futurists and others which have some new message, good or bad, to give to the world. At the National Gallery of British Art, better known as the Tate Gallery, we can see some of the best work of modern British artists which has been judged worthy of adding to our fine national collection.

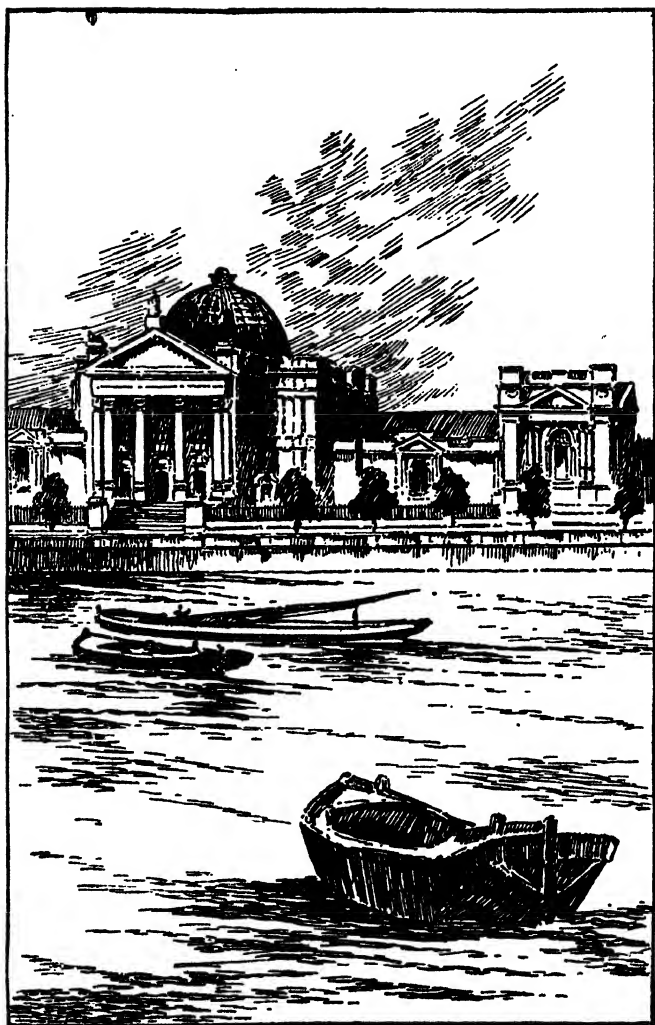
This gallery is rich in the work of G. F. Watts, R.A. (1817-1904), who was a painter with an inspiring message to his day. To the end of his life he had the highest aims in art. "I even think that in the future and in stronger hands than mine Art may yet speak as great poetry itself, with the solemn and majestic ring in which

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the Hebrew prophets spoke to the Jews of old, demanding noble aspirations." He saw the age given over to the lust of riches and he painted "Mammon," with asses' ears, his throne adorned with skulls : he painted "Hope" to teach the divine lesson that, though all save one of the cords of the lyre of our life may be broken, we must listen to the music of that string. In the picture of a dead knight lying on his bier he bade us remember that "*Sic Transit Gloria Mundi*" and "What I spent I had, what I saved I lost, what I gave I have."

As Sir John Everett Millais advanced in his art he departed from the Pre-Raphaelite ideals. He came to feel that "truth of external fact" must give way to "truth of impression," and he ceased to render nature with the minutest faithfulness and adopted a broader and more impressionistic style of painting. He was always superb as a colourist.

When he was at work as a young man, Thackeray said to him : "I have met in Rome a versatile young dog who will run you hard for the Presidentship one of these days." This was Frederick (afterward Lord) Leighton (1830-1896), a doctor's son, who showed from his earliest years a keen feeling of beauty, and who studied art in Italy and Germany, determined to excel "and to attain the highest mastery in its practice." His first picture to hang on the walls of the Academy was "Cimabue's Madonna carried in Procession," painted when he was five and twenty and purchased by the Queen. From that time onward he exhibited regularly, and worked his way up till in 1878 he was elected President of the Royal Academy, a post for which, both from his distinction as an artist and his social gifts as a man, he was eminently suited. Year by year he exhibited "creatures



The Tate Gallery, Millbank

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all too bright and good for human nature's daily food": Helen of Troy, Ariadne, Electra and other heroines of the early days of Greece and Rome.

On his death Sir John Everett Millais, then a dying man, was appointed to succeed him, and when he too went his way Sir Edward Poynter was elected president. Like Lord Leighton, he found in days long past and in classic mythology the favourite subjects of his brush; he considers that the aim of an artist is to be the interpreter of beauty to the outside world.

So, too, did Sir Lawrence Alma Tadema, R.A. (1836-1912), who had inscribed over the door of his studio: "As the sun colours flowers so art colours life," and who painted the romance of an earlier day. He came of Dutch ancestry and has in his art something of the minute finish of the early Dutch masters; all details are perfectly rendered—the treatment of marble, for example, is faultless in its transparent loveliness.

Two artists of achievement, both cut off in their early prime, did much for English art. Fred Walker, A.R.A. (1840-1875), had "a special power of drawing from reality some secret of beauty that escapes common observation." He painted scenes of rural life, the vagrant, the peasant, the old alms-woman, sheltered in "The Harbour of Refuge" in her declining years. C. W. Furse, A.R.A. (1868-1904), belonged to a later generation, and was inspired by the spirit of the great masters. His fine pictures of "Diana of the Uplands" and "The Return from the Ride" are in the Tate Gallery.

The art of our day has been strongly influenced by two American painters who made their homes in England, J. McNeill Whistler (1834-1903) and J. S. Sargent, R.A.

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Whistler's portrait of his mother, a study in black and grey, and his Carlyle, which was bought for the Glasgow Municipal Gallery, are both well known through reproductions, and are masterpieces of portraiture. It is said of Whistler that "he discovered the night as Turner discovered the sky," and his "Nocturnes," showing the lights on the London bridges dimly reflected in the flowing river, opened the eyes of passers-by to a beauty they had missed.

J. S. Sargent is one of the great modern portrait painters. To sit to him is to bare the soul to the searching eye of a reader of character, who sets down remorselessly what he sees there and what has stamped itself in the expression of the face, cold or calculating, austere or passionate—the secret of the heart is revealed.

It is impossible to make more than a mention of other painters who have done and are doing good work. Sir Luke Fildes, R.A., has touched the great heart of the public by his renderings of the life of the poor. In his well-known picture, "The Doctor," he paints the interior of a labourer's cottage with a little child struggling between life and death. W. Q. Orchardson, R.A. (1835-1910), has been called a novelist in paint, and his finely painted interiors, with their subtly delicate colouring, were yearly looked for with eagerness by men of his craft as well as by lay visitors to the Academy. Then, too, we have Hubert Herkomer, R.A., the founder of the Bushey Art School, a man of many gifts; Frank Dicksee, R.A., who renders his inner visions in such pictures as "The Two Crowns," a popular favourite, in which a king, crowned and robed in splendour, passing along in triumphal procession, has his eye arrested by the cross on which hangs the

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Figure crowned with thorns ; J. M. Swan, R.A., the great animal painter ; Briton Riviere, R.A., who, also, finds in the dumb creatures the subjects for his brush, and who uses them in dramatic settings. For example, his " Beyond Man's Footsteps " depicts a polar bear, standing solitary in the land of trackless ice. There are also the members of the Newlyn school, a number of artists who, holding similar views on art, banded themselves together, and were named after the little Cornish village where they lived and worked. Among their members are Stanhope Forbes, R.A., Elizabeth Forbes, Frank Bramley, A.R.A. They paint the fisher-folk in their homely setting, or amid sea and sky in pictures flooded with light ; George Clausen, R.A., Henry Herbert La Thangue, R.A., who have found their happiest inspiration in truthful studies of the peasantry of our countryside.

We must not omit to mention Lady Butler, a strong painter of military scenes, whose stirring pictures of " The Roll Call " and " The Remnants of an Army " (Dr Brydon exhausted at the gates of Jelalabad) are in the national collections.

In sculpture good work has been done to which only the briefest reference can be given here. Both Lord Leighton and G. F. Watts achieved distinction in this branch of art. So, too, has Mr Hamo Thornycroft, R.A., whose " Teucer the Bowman," in the Tate Gallery, is a magnificent figure of athletic manhood ; and Onslow Ford (1852-1901), among whose fine work is the Shelley Memorial at University College, Oxford.

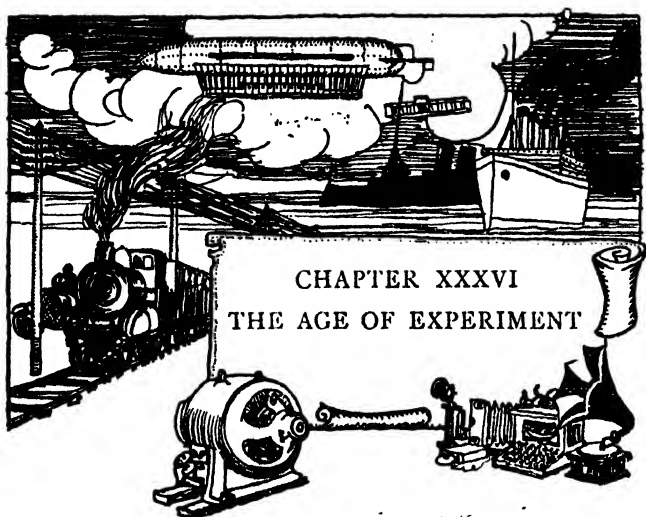
The greatest English sculptor of the nineteenth century was Alfred Stevens (1817-1875), a pupil of Thorwaldsen, who, in open competition, won the

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commission to design the memorial to the Duke of Wellington, a magnificent piece of work, left unfinished at his death.

Art as applied to the illustration of books and to pictorial advertising posters has during recent years developed greatly. The invention of the three-colour process of printing gave great opportunities to the colourist, and Mr Arthur Rackham was one of the first to use it in reproducing his weird and eerie fancies. His distinctive combination of block lines and colour greatly took the popular fancy, and Mr Dulac, Mr E. Detmold and Mr Pogány are now equally distinguished workers in the same field.

The public hoardings which a generation ago presented a depressing spectacle of ugliness and lack of taste, have been largely transformed owing to the recognition of the fact that the public appreciate what is refined and beautiful. Messrs A. & F. Pears deserve much of the credit for this improvement, for in taking the bold step of purchasing the now well-known picture, "Bubbles," by one of the first artists of the time, Sir John Millais, for use as a poster, they initiated a new era in advertising. Foremost among artists who have largely devoted themselves to the designing of posters is Mr John Hassall.



AS the age of Elizabeth was the age of discovery of new lands so that of Victoria was the age of the discovery of new forces. Scientists of every nation have laboured patiently and unceasingly to discover Nature's secrets, and when they have been revealed they have been used for the service of man. "The interests of science and industry," says Professor Huxley, "are identical, science cannot make a step forward without sooner or later opening up new channels for industry." Inventions and scientific discoveries link all civilized nations together, for all have contributed their share.

So far as the illumination of our houses and towns goes we may almost say that in a hundred years we have passed from darkness to light. When the nineteenth

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century opened the streets of London were lit by dim oil lamps, the houses of the wealthy by wax candles, those of the less prosperous by tallow candles which had to be constantly snuffed.

It was thought a wonderful improvement when the streets were lighted by gas; from 1820 onward gas began to be laid on in the houses. In the villages candles were still used, and it was not till the discovery of natural oil springs in America, which made the fortunes of American millionaires at one end of the scale and illuminated the cottage of the labourer at the other, that all classes were able to enjoy cheap light.

Toward the end of the century it began to be rumoured, much to the alarm of the gas companies, that electricity was to prove a practical public illuminant, and in 1880 it was used to light the Thames Embankment, the British Museum and Victoria Station. Gradually the main streets of London and of provincial cities, and the good modern houses, in the towns at any rate, were lit by electricity.

As it can be switched on or off at will, electricity has lessened the use of the lucifer match, itself a comparative new-comer, for up to 1834 the primitive



Lamplighter
(End of Eighteenth Century)

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process of striking flint on iron and igniting tinder was the only means of obtaining a light.

Electricity has literally been harnessed to the service of man, for from 1882 the electric current has been used for driving trams, and with the beginning of the twentieth century it was to be the motive power for the whole of the new underground service of London "tubes."

The coming of the motor, driven by petrol, for private cars, omnibuses and lorries, is gradually banishing the horse from the streets of the great cities.

The electric telegraph, which requires wires for the transmission of messages, has now a serious rival in wireless telegraphy. Mr Marconi, an Italian, discovered how "to set in motion the electric waves that travel through the ether surrounding our globe, to be received on a wire suspended on a high mast at a distance away." Thus ships at sea carrying the Marconi apparatus are able to communicate with one another and with the wireless stations on land. By the use of "wireless," the captain of a vessel crossing the Atlantic recognizing a murderer escaping from justice, communicated with the police, who arrested the criminal on the landing-stage.

The inestimable value of the invention was brought home to the whole world, not for the first time, when in April 1912 the White Star liner, *Titanic*, the largest ship afloat, on her maiden voyage struck an iceberg in mid-ocean. The Marconi operator, sticking to his post to the last, sent out the tragic message S.S. (saving of souls), which was received by the *Carpathia*. She immediately steamed to the assistance of the *Titanic* and rescued 712 lives out of 2201. The various parts

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of the Empire are, as far as possible, to be linked together by wireless.

Experiments in wireless telephony are also being made, and will probably have their result in a new and improved system.

The practical use of electricity has largely been due to the labours of one of the hardest workers of the age, an American, Thomas A. Edison. He is also the inventor of the phonograph and the cinematograph. By the aid of the phonograph generations to come will be able to hear the actual tones of the singers and orators of our day, and records are being carefully preserved. For the cinematograph, movements are recorded by a machine capable of taking forty-three photographs a second, and such films are now taken of many of the great events of our day. When King George and his Queen went to India in 1911 they took with them a cinematograph with films representing their children at work and at play.

Travel by land and travel by sea became swifter as the years of the nineteenth century rolled on. It was left to the twentieth century to conquer the air. Man, envious of birds, determined to learn the secret of flight. Gas-inflated balloons ascended to the sky because they were lighter than air; the problem was to devise a machine which was heavier than air and yet could skim through it. Count Zeppelin, a pioneer in aviation, made one of the first successful flights on a machine of his own construction over the Lake of Geneva in 1900. Monsieur Blériot, a Frenchman, was the first to fly across the Channel, but that journey is no longer considered amazing. In speed, distance and height the records are broken year by

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year; 39 miles an hour was the maximum in 1908, 107 miles an hour in 1912; a height of 400 feet in 1908 was beaten by one of 17,913 feet in 1912. One of the great events of that year was the British military flight trials on Salisbury Plain, for the aeroplane will have an important part to play in future wars.

War every year becomes more deadly. The round cannon shot used at Waterloo seem playthings by the side of the cone-shaped lyddite shells containing powder and bullets, and exploding on striking an object, used to such deadly effect in the South African War. What would Wellington have thought of the Maxim machine gun, invented by Sir Hiram Maxim in 1884, by which the recoil of the gun is used to reload and re-fire, so that when the gun is once set going it requires no further attendance till the whole of the cartridges are used, and it can fire as many as 620 shots a minute?

Nelson, too, would have been astonished at the armour-plated Dreadnoughts and all the modern naval craft which have replaced the wooden walls; the torpedo boats, long and low, that travel swiftly through the water till they near the enemy, and discharge the deadly torpedo which is capable of destroying the largest vessel.

But scientists and inventors have done better work than in perfecting the art of destruction: they have laboured patiently to lessen human suffering and save human life. In this field the greatest discovery of the nineteenth century was that of chloroform, which by rendering patients insensible of pain makes a far greater number of operations possible. Sir James Simpson (1811-1870) was among the first to find the enormous value of chloroform in hospital practice,

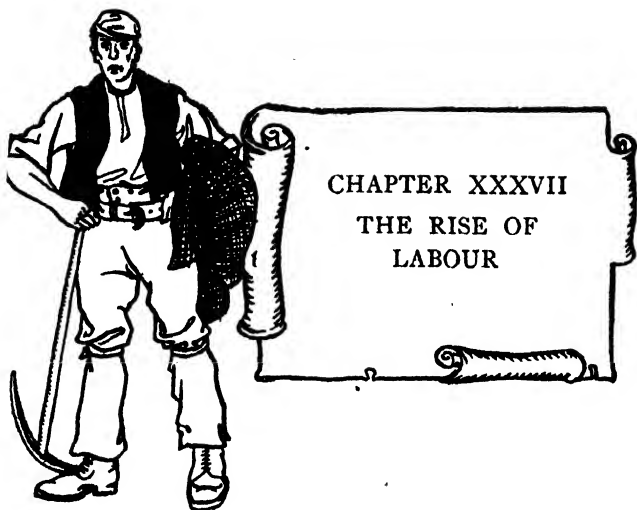
THE AGE OF EXPERIMENT

and since then other anæsthetics, as they are called, have been discovered which have saved untold agony and countless lives. So too has the discovery of the use of antiseptics by Lord Lister¹ (1827-1912). Working in his laboratory, by the aid of a powerful microscope he discovered that minute living germs, or microbes, are the cause of blood-poisoning, and that these could be destroyed by a solution of carbolic acid. Thanks to his discoveries, nine-tenths of the men wounded in the Boer War recovered.

The X-rays, or Röntgen rays, so called after their discoverer, have enabled surgeons to take photographs which show the inside of the human body, in its envelope of semi-transparent flesh, and thus they can find the exact position of fractures, or any "foreign substance," such as a bullet, that has entered the body.

The use of radium, discovered by Monsieur and Madame Curie, is only in its infancy, but it has already been used to cure terrible diseases. It is the most expensive substance in the world, for it costs £600,000 an ounce, and it has such power that Sir William Crookes tells us that one gramme of radium electrons is enough to lift the whole British fleet to the top of Ben Nevis.

¹ See portrait, p. 254.



THERE was always a Labour party in England, if not everywhere else, because there were always labourers trying or hoping to better their condition by legislative means. Not to go too far back, we had a thriving party of that kind in the latter half of the Victorian period, and its object was the establishment of Trade Unions. A few of its representatives got into Parliament, and did good service. Mr Howell was the best known. They left a far happier England for the working men than they found when they began their labours. This was by no means due to them alone. The best men of all parties in Parliament and of all kinds outside, including Carlyle, Ruskin and Kingsley as writers, had a share in it. The net result was that the hours of labour for

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workmen, in the skilled trades at least, had been considerably reduced. There were better dwellings, and cheaper transit by train and tram had done wonders for the poorer class. In London especially many could recall a time when workmen had sometimes to walk from six to eight miles to their work before six in the morning and to walk back when the day's work was done. Over and above that, the better wages had more purchasing power. Food was much cheaper, thanks mainly to the reduction or abolition of duties on articles of the first necessity effected by Mr Gladstone, the greatest financier since Peel. Besides this the workers had won a place in municipal government. Their voice was heard in the municipal chambers of cities and boroughs, in County, District and Parish Councils, in School Boards, Boards of Guardians, and in the London vestries, or what remained of them. Many were appointed justices of the peace, especially in Lancashire and Yorkshire, and in Glasgow. Some became inspectors under the Factory and Workshop Acts, or officials in the Labour Department of the Board of Trade. Two Labour members held office: Mr Broadhurst, the Under-Secretary of State for the Home Department, Mr Burt at the Board of Trade. Co-operation, essentially a working-class movement, made enormous strides. The Elementary Education Act, with all its shortcomings (many since amended) had brought what was once the luxury of book-learning within reach of the poorest in the land.

It would be unfair to attribute all these changes to any particular party in the State. The Conservatives can claim the earlier Factory Acts, the Truck Act (by which it was made illegal to pay workpeople in goods

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rather than in coin), a Public Health Act, a Workmen's Compensation Act. It is historically true, however, that the chief agency in the reforms affecting the working classes has been the Liberal party.

The Unions had a great set-back when the House of Lords decided against them, on ultimate appeal, in what is known as the Taff Vale Case. As the law stood at that time, the Trade Union workman engaged in a strike was responsible for his own acts. If he broke the peace he could be punished for breaking it; if he did anything that inflicted civil damage on his employer, he could be sued or otherwise brought to account. The Taff Vale decision (July 1901) extended this liability to the Trade Union, as a body, to which the man belonged wherever he should act upon the responsibility of that body. This, of course, might bring ruin to any Union, since it might involve the loss, in fines and legal expenses, of the greater part of its funds. The decision had been hotly disputed since it was pronounced in the first court, and from the time of its confirmation by the House of Lords the workmen left no stone unturned to effect a change in the law.

Another difficulty arose when a railway porter named Osborne brought an action against his Trade Union, for the purpose of preventing a compulsory contribution from the members for political purposes. The money thus subscribed was used to pay the election expenses and salary of a member of Parliament pledged to the Union's interests. The case was duly tried and, finally, by the decision of the House of Lords in 1910, it was decided that, by the Acts of 1871 and 1876, Trade Unions had no power to spend their funds in this way. This practically shut the door of Parliament to Labour

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members, and led incidentally to the provision in the budget of 1911 for the payment of a salary of £400 a year to members of Parliament. In spite of this the Labour party were still anxious to secure the reversal of the Osborne judgment, and in 1912 a Trade Union Bill was introduced into Parliament with a view to permitting the members to subscribe to a political fund which was to be kept separate from the ordinary fund.

Labour has been almost uniformly fortunate in the character and quality of its leaders. Mr Broadhurst and Mr Burt have been already mentioned. Mr George Howell was in every respect as good a member of Parliament as he had been a good bricklayer. His speeches and his writings were models of quiet and effective advocacy of his cause, supported by the fullest information, most laboriously acquired, and free from any taint of personal offence toward those who were not of the same way of thinking. Mr Applegarth, for a long time Secretary of the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters, while still continuing his services to the Labour cause, rose to the management of an important business in which he had a principal share. Mr Odger, though but a working shoemaker, could hold his own with the best in debate on the Labour question, and with education and opportunity might have held a high position in the State.

These were the men of the old party of Labour. The new Labour party, representing a larger outlook and wider aims, came first prominently before the world in 1906 in the election that brought Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman into power. It was a tremendous surprise; a handful, working more or less in obscurity before, the Labour men now came into Parliament thirty strong, a perfectly equipped party, with labour, and nothing but

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labour, for their legislative end and aim. They lost no time in giving themselves the title of "The Independent Labour Party," by way of signifying their perfect freedom from all other party ties, though, at the same time, they were willing to co-operate with all who would further their ends. Most of them were, or had been, workers—compositors, mill hands, gasworkers, railway guards and the like. Mr Keir Hardie, their leader, had been a coal miner; Mr J. R. Macdonald, their secretary (son of an agricultural labourer), a warehouse clerk; Mr John Ward a navvy and a soldier; Mr Barnes a working engineer; Mr Snowden a Civil Service clerk. Some few were Socialists, though mainly as a matter of private opinion; all were pledged by their election addresses to the Labour cause.

They were not the only workmen in the House. By way of recognizing the importance of Labour, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman had given the Presidency of the Local Government Board to Mr John Burns, the leader of the strike by which the dock labourers won their sixpence an hour in 1889. It was well meant, but it had not the effect of winning the support of the working class. It is on record that Mr Burns himself had hoped otherwise, and that where the Prime Minister had expected thanks when he made the appointment, Mr Burns had nothing to offer him but congratulations on his having done what would prove the most popular act of his whole career. Mr Burns had once been as democratic as the best of them, and had even gone to prison for his share in a riot in Trafalgar Square. The responsibilities of office, however, gradually severed him, politically, from his old associates. He judged their schemes for the relief of the unemployed, and other matters as they came before him

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in the course of the work of his department, with a chilling impartiality that gradually estranged him from the majority of his class throughout the country. The appointment, however, was in so far a good one that he proved to be an able and capable minister.

The programme of the new Labour party, as distinct from that of the old party of Labour, was distinctly more sociological, to use the least controversial term. It was no longer a question of raising the wages of labour by combination; the new party demanded the improvement of the lot of the entire working class in every department of life, and advocated as a means of doing this the imposition of heavier burdens of taxation on the wealthier classes. The State was to find work for the unemployed, to feed the poorer school children, and to pension the aged poor. The programme included a compulsory eight hours' day for all workers, the prohibition of child labour under sixteen, the undertaking by municipalities and the State of all the public services, such as railways and other means of transit, and the provision of healthy dwellings for the workers. Among the ways and means suggested for doing all this were increased death duties, a tax on urban land, and a new scheme for making the Income Tax fall more heavily on large incomes and less heavily on small ones. Some of these reforms have been already realized in whole or in part, notably the provision of Old Age Pensions. It is impossible to doubt that others are on the way.

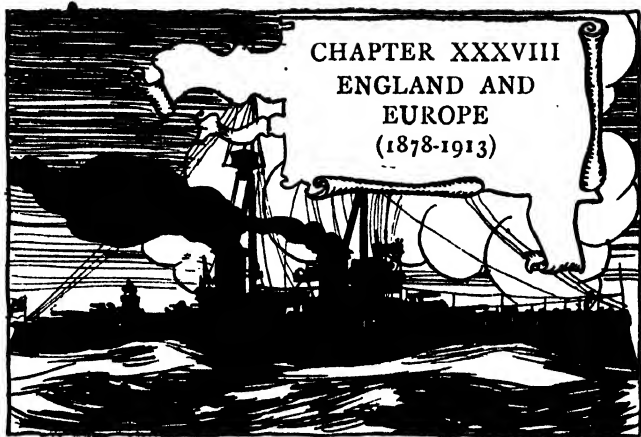


John Burns

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It will be observed that many of these schemes involve State co-operation. The State is to become employer and relief agent for every kind of distress—the friend and helper of all, as well as the mere ruler and guardian of order. But now a new party is in course of formation (not in the existing parliamentary group) which would dispense with State aid in every particular and strive to win all that the workers want by means of the General Strike incessantly renewed. This is the Syndicalist party. It is believed that the workers throughout the country, and at need all over the world, have only to refuse to work in certain trades that affect the welfare of the community to have the whole country at their mercy. The public services selected for this drastic experiment are transport—that is, the railways and the shipping, on which we depend mainly for our supply of food ; and colossal strikes in these branches took place in 1912, in the main, however, without doing the harm anticipated by the leaders.

The Coal Strike of 1912, organized by the Miners' Federation, for the purpose of obtaining a minimum wage, led to over 1,000,000 men being idle. When negotiations between employers and employed failed, the Government stepped in and passed the Coal Mines (Minimum Wage) Act, which provided that Boards should be appointed, composed equally of miners and owners, empowered to fix the minimum wage in their district. The Labour party proper still commands the confidence of the working men. In the General Election of January 1910 its membership in the House of Commons had risen to 40 ; in that of December of the same year to 42.



SINCE the Crimean War Great Britain has been at peace with Europe, though there have been times when war seemed almost inevitable.

We were on the verge of hostilities on behalf of Turkey in 1878. On the termination of the Russo-Turkish War the two combatants signed the Treaty of San Stefano, which the British Cabinet considered unduly favourable to Russia. An international congress was held at Berlin to revise the question, and the main conclusions were embodied in the Treaty of Berlin, which for nearly thirty years governed the relationships of the Continental nations with one another. When Lord Beaconsfield returned to England, bringing, as he said "Peace with Honour," he had ensured, so he hoped, not only the integrity of Turkey but the safety of the Christian subjects of the Sultan. But the Sultan's promises were ever made to

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

be broken, and, in spite of constant reminders from the British Government, the evils of his rule continued. Eighteen years later when the Christians in Armenia were suffering gross ill-treatment at his hands, Lord Salisbury, who had been with Lord Beaconsfield at Berlin, declared that in backing Turkey against Russia in 1878 we had "backed the wrong horse." The Treaty of Berlin was one of the causes of strained relations between this country and Russia for nearly thirty years.

The war cloud loomed darkly once more in 1898, after Sir Herbert Kitchener's victory at Omdurman, by which he reconquered the Soudan and brought it within the Anglo-Egyptian boundary. France had never acquiesced in our permanent occupation of Egypt, and she now refused to recognize our claim to have the Soudan included in it. News suddenly came that a French expedition, under Major Marchand, had hoisted the French flag at Fashoda on the Nile, three hundred miles beyond Omdurman. Sir Herbert Kitchener immediately took steamer to Fashoda, but failed to persuade Major Marchand to retire pending definite instructions from Paris. For six weeks there was great tension between the two countries. Lord Salisbury, then Prime Minister, remained firm, and at last France gave way. Major Marchand was ordered to retire and France relinquished all claim to the Soudan.

Six years later, largely owing to the influence of King Edward, we came to an excellent understanding with France and an *entente cordiale* was established between the two nations. Our friendship with France led, in 1907, to an understanding with her ally Russia, by which the old fear of Russian attack from Afghanistan was set at rest.

ENGLAND AND EUROPE

Besides these European agreements Great Britain is allied to Japan with a view to safeguarding our mutual interests in the Far East. Within a few years Japan rose from a position of comparative political insignificance to that of a first-rate Power, and the success of her army and navy in the Russian War of 1904-1905 established her as the greatest Power in the East. Great Britain in 1894 had been the first European country to recognize her officially as a civilized power. The Anglo-Japanese Alliance of 1902 has since been renewed.

Great Britain's purpose has been throughout to maintain the balance of power in Europe and to secure friendships and alliances with a view to strengthening her position in the event of her being engaged in war. Her understanding with France and Russia is practically a treaty of defence, and Germany, who had previously formed a league, known as the Triple Alliance, with Austria and Italy, looks on with no friendly eye. Germany is anxious for colonies under her own flag to absorb her surplus population, but wherever she turns she finds that other Powers have prior interests. Great Britain alone owns one-quarter of the earth. In order to strengthen her position Germany has decided to become one of the leading naval powers, and in a few years has become second only to England on the sea. This has led to great rivalry between England and Germany in the building of battleships. It is recognized that an overwhelming navy is vital to our existence as a great Empire, and many contend that we should have twice as large a fleet as Germany. So Germany goes on building ship after ship, we go on building Dreadnought and Super-Dreadnought, and both countries are heavily burdened by the enormous cost of armaments. Sir Henry

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Campbell-Bannerman, Liberal Prime Minister, from December 1905 to 1908, proposed to Germany a mutual limitation of shipbuilding, but instead of accepting the offer Germany redoubled her efforts.

Germany is a nation of trained soldiers. Conscription is the rule, as it is in France and elsewhere on the Continent, and every man has to serve a certain term in the army. In Great Britain our regular soldiers enlist voluntarily for a given period. There are also volunteer forces recruited by men who do not desire to be professional soldiers, but who offer themselves for home defence, and yearly spend a certain amount of time in training. This force, once known as the Volunteers, was reorganized by Mr (now Lord) Haldane in 1907, and was renamed the Territorial Army. The intention was that it should consist of 900,000 officers and men, but this number has not been obtained, and there are those in England, chief among whom is the veteran Lord Roberts, who consider that we should compel our young men to undergo military training for a year or more, in order that they should be able to meet foreign regulars, should a raiding force be landed upon our shores—a contingency not impossible, in the opinion of experts such as the First Sea Lord (1913). Unfortunately the question has largely become a political one and it will not therefore be easy of settlement on rational lines.

The enormous strain caused by the present immense expenditures upon the army and navy by every great Power has of late been added to by the necessity of providing aeroplanes and airships. Germany and France have set themselves with energy to the creation of aerial navies, and doubtless Great Britain in self-defence will have to follow suit.

ENGLAND AND EUROPE

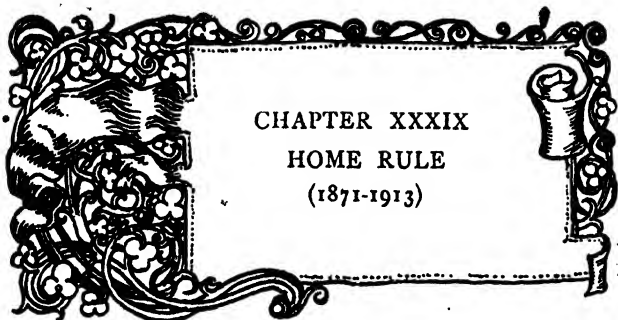
Side by side with the wars and rumours of wars has been a strong and growing movement for peace. In 1897 the Czar of Russia invited European Powers to a conference at The Hague to discuss whether it would not be possible to build fewer ships and spend less money on the wasteful machinery of war. The conference failed in its object, but it led to the formation of The Hague Tribunal, at which minor differences between nations are discussed and settled by arbitration.

The second Hague Conference took place in 1907, and, though nothing had been done in the interval toward the reduction of armaments, the courts of arbitration had averted many possible causes of warfare.

In 1911 Mr Andrew Carnegie gave a sum of £2,000,000 for a fund to hasten the abolition of war. One result of his munificence was the building of a permanent home for the Hague Tribunal—the Palace of Peace—opened at The Hague, 28th August 1913. Mr Carnegie amassed his enormous fortune by the manufacture of steel; Mr Alfred Nobel, a Swede, by the manufacture of dynamite. Yet in spite of the nature of his business he had a sincere desire to promote peace between the nations, and left a prize of £8000 to be awarded annually to the man or woman who has done most to promote the cause of peace.

A further proof of the growing desire for good will among the nations was given when Lord Haldane addressed the American Bar Association at Montreal (1st September 1913) on Higher Nationality:

“There are signs that the best people in the best nations are ceasing to wish to live in a world of mere claims and to proclaim on every occasion, ‘Our country, right or wrong’ . . . a nation has, as regards its neighbours, duties as well as rights.”



THE question of Home Rule is so much mixed up with party politics that we are all apt to lose sight of its real nature. Constitutionally the problem is merely one of what is called devolution—that is, relieving the Imperial Parliament by increasing the number of legislative bodies. Now that the labours of the Government have so enormously increased in this country, it is felt that no one parliament can suffice for all the work of legislation. Our kindred in America have a legislature for each state of their Union, and only the most important questions are dealt with by the central body that legislates for all. It is the same in Austria and in Prussia.

Ireland once had a parliament of her own, so that in asking for its restoration she is not asking for something new. But since Ireland had grown disaffected under English rule, it was feared that a restored Irish Parliament might try to bring about a complete independence of England, hence the widespread opposition to the measure. As a measure of devolution—that is, for letting the Irish people legislate for themselves in domestic

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affairs—there would be much to be said for this scheme, as for the kindred idea of local legislatures for England and Scotland.

But this is only a statement of the case as it belongs to the mere philosophy of politics. The long and protracted discussions on the subject have at all times roused the fiercest passions. When Mr Gladstone came into office in 1880 with a policy of redress for Irish grievances, he was unfortunate with his first measure, a Bill designed to give the tenants better security of tenure for their own land, a question which was at the root of Irish disaffection. It was rejected with scant ceremony by the House of Lords. This was followed, as it had been preceded, by a series of frightful outrages, by the murder of Lord Mountmorris, a prominent Irish landlord, and by a state of things which necessitated the placing of over a thousand persons of the landlord class under police protection to save them from a similar fate. The Government was compelled to retaliate with a stringent measure of coercion, and this led to almost unparalleled scenes of confusion in the House of Commons, in the course of which Mr Parnell, with thirty-five of his followers, was ejected from the House on 3rd February 1881. On one occasion the House was compelled to sit continuously for twenty-two hours, on another for over forty.



Charles Stewart Parnell

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This acute phase of the Irish question dates mainly from the leadership of the Irish party by an extraordinary man, Charles Stewart Parnell, who was English by descent on his father's side, and American on his mother's. His religion was that of the Protestant minority, but neither this nor the fact that he was of the landlord class served in the least degree to alienate his sympathies from the Irish people. He was determined to make government impossible until he had secured to the Irish tenantry their full rights to the profitable cultivation of the land, and, over and above that, until he had restored their ancient parliament. His policy, as the autocratic head of a compact Irish party in the House of Commons, was to use that party solely to these ends, and to keep it wholly aloof from all interest in English politics and free from all allegiance to English parties, Liberal and Conservative. He was of a cold and concentrated nature, alike to friends and foes ; he ruled his party with a rod of iron, and he gradually rose to be, as he was called, the uncrowned king of Ireland.

The Irish Land Bill of the Gladstone Government (1881) had a stormy reception, yet in the end this and the measures that followed and preceded it worked incalculable good. It enabled a tenant to sell his interest and to apply to a land court to fix his rent instead of leaving it to the discretion of his landlord. Useful as this was, the Duke of Argyll, a prominent member of Mr Gladstone's ministry, resigned to mark his disapproval of it. Even the Irish members did their best to make it effective, though Mr Healy denied that the Irish people owed any gratitude to a ministry which had sent so many Irishmen to prison for political crimes.

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Still, one outrage followed another in all parts of the country, London included, and the Government was at last compelled to retaliate by a second arrest of Parnell and his associates. A first prosecution had proved abortive owing to the disagreement of the jury, but this time the prisoners were convicted and sent to Kilmainham Jail in October 1881, whereupon a "No Rent" manifesto was issued, urging the people to withhold their rent until they had a full redress of their grievances. The Irish Land League, by which this manifesto had been drawn up, was suppressed as an illegal and criminal association, but it was revived under another name and under the presidency of Parnell, in 1884.

The only comfort in the situation was that the new Land Act turned out to be so beneficial that no less than 50,000 persons sought the benefit of its provisions almost as soon as it became law. From first to last legislation of this kind wrought wonders for the pacification of Ireland. The first trial of this remedy was made in 1860, and between that period and 1904 no less than forty-three Land Acts were passed.

Such then was the state of things at the opening of 1882. Parnell and his associates were still in prison, the remedial legislation was working for good, but the outrages still went on because the Irish people were determined to accept nothing less than the power of legislating for themselves. At length the imprisoned leaders seem to have seen the necessity for some compromise with the Government, and Parnell agreed to use his influence in bringing about social peace if he were released from jail. He was liberated accordingly, and he kept his word. But it was soon proved that

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he had no power over the worst enemies of Ireland, whose proceedings he had explicitly condemned. The new prospect of a settlement was suddenly shattered by the news of the murder in Phoenix Park, Dublin, on 6th May 1882, of the Irish Secretary, Lord Frederick Cavendish, and the Permanent Under-Secretary, Mr Burke, by a gang of ruffians whose sole desire was to keep Ireland in a state of revolution. W. Forster, the late Chief Secretary, had resigned from the Government to mark his objection to the "Kilmainham Treaty," as



Arthur James Balfour

the compact with Parnell was called, and Lord Frederick Cavendish had only just arrived in Dublin to succeed him.

In 1887 Mr Balfour succeeded Sir Michael Hicks Beach as Chief Secretary for Ireland. At that time, according to Lord Salisbury, what Ireland needed was twenty years of resolute government. But the rigorous Coercion Bill, introduced the same year, led to increasing lawlessness and bloodshed. It aimed at putting down boycotting, which in actual practice meant that its victims were starved and ruined. Mr Balfour set to work to study at first hand the problems of the country, and framed a more generous Land Bill for the purpose of giving the people greater facilities for acquiring the land which they tilled, and thus creating a class of peasant proprietors. The Government undertook to buy land that came into the market and to advance the necessary purchase money to a suitable tenant,

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who would pay a small rate of interest in addition to the rent, and ultimately become owner of the soil. In 1890 Mr Balfour made a tour of Ireland, and realized more fully the actual state of the people. The knowledge he thus gained helped him to deal wisely and generously with the terrible distress a year later when the dread potato famine once more reduced the peasantry to semi-starvation. The Government advanced money to be spent on railway construction, in order to provide work, relief works were opened, seed potatoes supplied, and all that was possible done to help the people. He earned the gratitude of the Irish peasants by these ameliorative measures, and when in 1891 he resigned his post to accept the leadership of the Conservative party in the House of Commons, it was admitted that in circumstances of great difficulty he had gained a high reputation.

Meantime serious difficulties had arisen in England. A few weeks after Mr Balfour's appointment as Chief Secretary *The Times* newspaper, in April 1887, published a series of articles called *Parnellism and Crime*, a tremendous indictment against the Nationalist leaders designed to show that they had all along been in secret sympathy with the worst elements of dissatisfaction. These reached their culminating point in a number of letters published in facsimile, one purporting to bear the signature of Mr Parnell and to express his approval of the murder of Mr Burke. The public excitement led to the appointment of a Special Commission to inquire into the whole matter. An elaborate trial (closing in 1889) resulted in the discovery that a wretched adventurer named Pigott had forged the letters in question. Before the law had time to reach

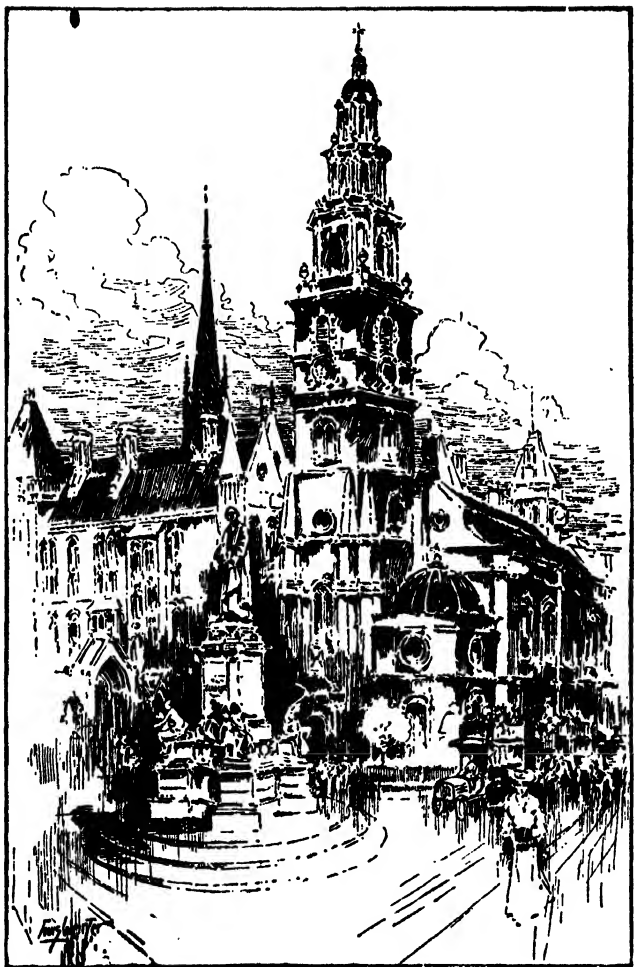
FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V •

him, Pigott fled to Madrid, and there committed suicide at the moment when the Spanish police were mounting the stairs to effect his capture. Parnell's return to the House of Commons after this vindication was one of the most moving scenes in our parliamentary annals. He received the freedom of Edinburgh shortly afterward, and was entertained at a banquet attended by public men of all parties.

But the height of his power was very near to the catastrophe of his fall. This came when in November 1890 he was fatally compromised by certain legal proceedings brought against him by his old friend and associate, Captain O'Shea. The scandal led to his loss of the leadership of the Irish party, not by any means with his assent, for he fought for his position, with his characteristic obstinacy, one man against the whole strength of the party. But the hand of Fate was upon him, and on 6th October 1891 the world was startled by the news of his sudden death. Misfortune seemed to pursue him beyond the grave. At the General Election of 1892 those of his party who fought the election in his name were but a miserable minority of nine, against seventy-two who acquiesced in his disgrace.

For a time everything seemed brought to a standstill. A new Crimes Act was introduced, surpassing in severity all that had gone before. This was followed by fresh crimes, barbarous outrages on cattle and raids on moonlighters.

True to his policy of pacification by redress of grievances, Mr Gladstone introduced his first Home Rule Bill in 1886, but was defeated on the second reading mainly through the defection of his old colleagues, Mr



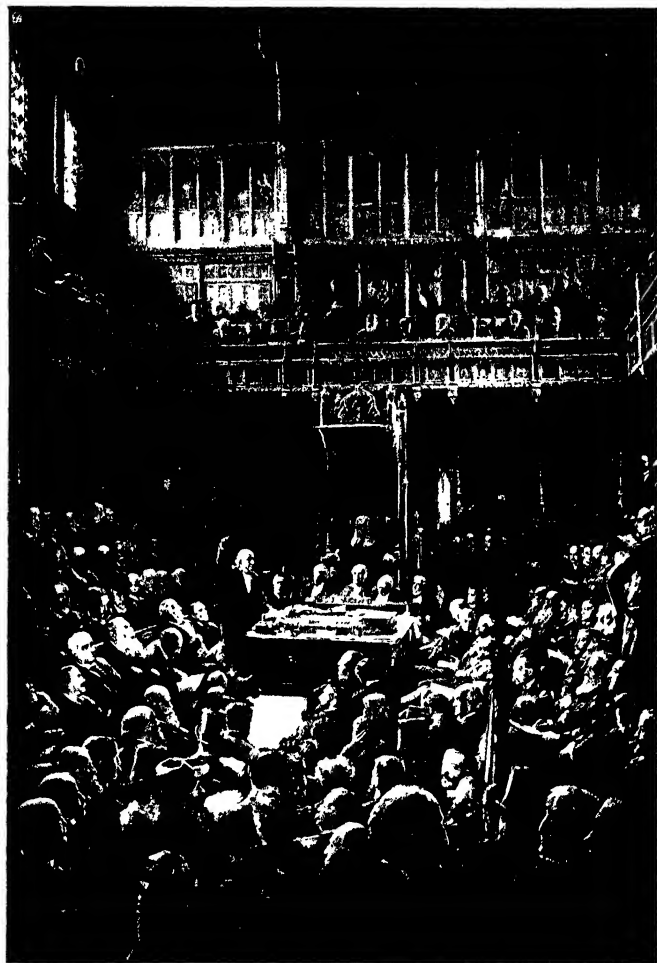
Gladstone Statue

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

Chamberlain, Mr Bright, Lord Hartington and others. The consequent appeal to the country brought in the Conservatives with a majority of over a hundred votes. But in spite of this the Home Rule question retained its vitality through the years that followed. A second Home Rule Bill was passed by the Commons but rejected by the Lords in 1893. With this Gladstone's championship of Home Rule in Parliament came to an end. He resigned the Premiership in March 1894, and was succeeded by Lord Rosebery, though he remained a member till the dissolution in 1895. In his final address to his constituents in Mid-Lothian he once more asserted his undying belief in Home Rule.

He retired to his home at Hawarden, and during the closing years of his life continued his active interest in public affairs. He died on 19th May 1898, at the age of eighty-eight, and was accorded a public funeral, his body lying in state in Westminster Hall before its burial in the Abbey, in the Statesmen's Corner.

For some years after his death Home Rule was thought to be a dead issue in Parliament, though the agitation in Ireland continued unabated. When the Liberals returned to office in 1906 they had pledged themselves not to introduce a Home Rule Bill, but after the General Election in December 1910 the Liberal Government once more came into office, with Home Rule as one of the principal items upon its programme. Accordingly, at the end of 1912, the Home Rule Bill passed its second reading in the House of Commons by a majority of 100 votes, but was thrown out by the House of Lords. Before passing into law it must await the operation of the Act limiting the power of



Mr. Gladstone introducing the Home Rule Bill of 1893

R. Ponsonby Staples

By permission of Messrs. Henry Graves & Co.

HOME RULE

the Lords to reject a Bill. If the Liberals should remain in power for the full term for which they were elected the Lords cannot prevent the Measure from being placed upon the Statute Book in 1915.

In spite of the bitter and determined opposition of Protestant Ulster, which at present shows no sign of weakening, the question has been for some time, thanks to remedial measures, and especially to the Land Bills, one of peaceful agitation.



CHAPTER XL GEORGE THE FIFTH

ON King Edward's death many people asked : What manner of man is the son who is now called upon to wear the crown? He was little known to the public at large. They knew of his upbringing, the happy childhood spent at Sandringham and Marlborough House, and of his early apprenticeship to the navy. King Edward in the training of his sons had avoided the too German, too bookish character of his own preparation for life. He determined to give them the opportunity of associating with their fellows on an equal footing and he sent them both into the navy. The boys (Prince Edward was thirteen and Prince George only twelve at the time) went as naval cadets on board the *Britannia*, stationed

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at Dartmouth, and there spent two happy years. Then came the educational cruise of the *Bacchante*, the floating home of the young princes for three years. They were to see the world and to gain an intimate idea of those vast possessions over which it was expected that the elder one would rule. They duly obtained promotion, and in 1880 were rated as midshipmen. Prince George hoped to adopt the navy as a career; in 1885 he was gazetted lieutenant, in 1891 commander.

But another destiny awaited him. With the death of his brother (14th January 1892) Prince George was in direct succession to the throne, and his naval career was practically at an end. The following year he married Princess Mary, the daughter of the Duke and Duchess of Teck, who had been betrothed to his brother. It was a very popular union, for she was English by upbringing. Though she had not been sent to school to mix with girls on equal terms, she had a wider acquaintance with life than falls to the lot of many sheltered royalties. She was thoroughly educated, a student of many languages, well read in English literature. Her mother was absorbed in philanthropic schemes, and the daughter as she grew up became her constant companion and her secretary, thus gaining some insight into how the "other half" lives. The problems of poverty interested her and she was a student of the special Blue Books which throw an inner light on the lives of the poor.

Prince George had been created Duke of York, and he and the Duchess spent their early married life at York Cottage, Sandringham. On 23rd June 1894 a son was born to them (the present Prince of Wales); and christened Edward Albert Christian George Andrew

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V 0

Patrick David, the last four names a compliment to the four divisions of the British Isles. With his coming the succession to the throne in the fourth generation was secured, and it was rendered doubly sure by the birth in due course of brothers and a sister—viz. Albert, Mary, Henry, George and John.

Shortly after Queen Victoria's death the Duke and Duchess of York visited Australia to open the first Parliament of the Commonwealth, as a token of the appreciation felt by the mother country for the loyal assistance rendered during the South African War. The *Ophir* set sail on 16th March 1901, and on 6th May reached Melbourne, where the royal party were received with acclamation. On his return to England King Edward created his son Prince of Wales. No royal prince has ever travelled so widely or seen so much of the world. From the day he came of age to the year of his father's death he spent more than half of his time out of this country.

On 8th May 1910 he was proclaimed King as George the Fifth at Charing Cross, Temple Bar and elsewhere, with the old-time ceremonial. In his first speech to his Privy Council and his subsequent addresses to the Army, the Navy, India and the Colonies, he expressed his noble aspirations as a ruler. To the Privy Council he said :

" I know that I can rely upon Parliament, and upon the people of these islands and of my dominions beyond the seas for their help in the discharge of those arduous duties, and for their prayers that God will grant me strength and guidance. I am encouraged in the knowledge that I have in my dear wife one who will be a constant helpmeet in every endeavour for our people's good."

GEORGE V

King George has made many other eloquent public utterances and he rendered a service to his country on the notable occasion when he called upon her to "Wake up, England!" This and other speeches were collected and published in 1912.

He is called upon to reign over the vastest Empire the world has ever known: regions Cæsar never knew, peoples of every clime. The visions of an Alexander the Great or a Charlemagne fade into insignificance before the reality of our Empire over which the sun never sets.

King George is a serious man; he understands and accepts the democratic spirit of his age. When he came to the throne a Liberal Government, with Mr Asquith as Prime Minister, was in office, and one of the first Acts to which he gave royal assent was the Parliament Bill, which curtailed the powers of that stronghold of privilege, the House of Lords. Till August 1911 the Upper House had the right of totally rejecting Bills passed by the House of Commons. By the Parliament Act their power of veto was destroyed. Money Bills, passed through the House of Commons, though not acceptable to the House of Lords, can now obtain the royal assent and become law. Any measure of general legislation passed by the House of Commons three times in successive sessions of the same Parliament, though not agreeable to the Lords, can, after two years, in like manner, dispense with the Lords' approval and be presented to the King for the royal assent.

In 1912 the National Insurance Bill, piloted through Parliament by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr Lloyd George, became law. This provides that persons (with certain exceptions) in receipt of under £160 a year in wages shall pay weekly a small sum toward an

FROM GEORGE IV TO GEORGE V

insurance fund to which their employers and the State also contribute. Insured persons obtain free medical advice and monetary assistance during sickness, and provision is made for the treatment of consumptives in public sanatoria. The Bill also provides for unemployment benefits in certain trades.



David Lloyd George

King George and Queen Mary embarked for India to hold a Durbar on the 11th November 1911. The site of this magnificent ceremonial was the plain which had been the scene of the final assault on Delhi at the time of the mutiny, and the gorgeous pageants were well calculated to impress the imagination of the King's Indian subjects. It is customary on these occasions for the King to make some definite declaration to his Indian subjects, but his Durbar speech contained a tremendous surprise. "We have decided," he said, "the transfer of the seat of the government of India from Calcutta to the ancient capital of Delhi," thus, as the Marquess of Crewe said, "satisfying the historic sense of millions." This act, though naturally it had been decided upon after due consultation with those responsible for Indian affairs, impressed the Indians as a supreme act of power by their King-Emperor.

History is in the making day by day, and who can say what will be the future of any race or empire? Civilizations in the past have risen to power and fallen to decay. But we dare gaze with fearless eyes to the distant horizon. In an age which, in spite of undue

GEORGE V

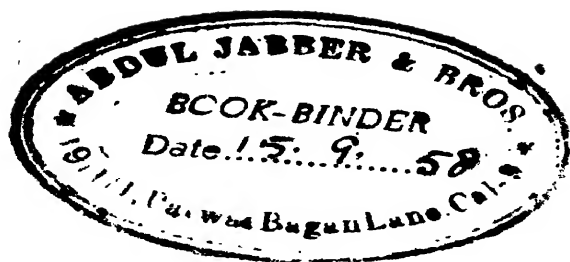
luxury on the one hand and abject poverty on the other, is imbued with a sense of social justice, a desire to give all men and women a place in the sunshine of life, we may see with prophetic vision a better future not only for our race but for humanity.

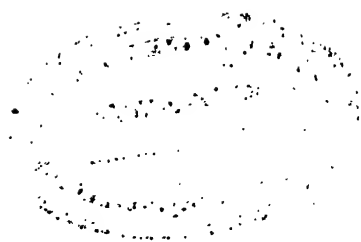
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